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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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PROMINENT LAYMEN FORM COMMISSION TO AID THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

TEACHERS, school administrators, and other educational workers should find a new source of encouragement in the recent announcement of the formation of the National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools. The Commission is composed exclusively of laymen who are not professionally identified with education, religion, or politics. The twenty-eight persons who constitute the present membership of the Commission are prominent lay citizens in business, labor, law, and publishing. Later the membership will be expanded to sixty persons of varied experience from every region of the nation. An educational adviser will serve on the Commission's staff and will be assisted by an advisory board of educators. Initial financial support has been provided by the Carnegie Corporation and the General Education Board.

The Commission's headquarters are at 2 West Forty-fifth Street, New York 19, New York.

In announcing the formation of the Commission, Roy E. Larsen, chairman of the Commission and president of Time Incorporated (*Time*, *Life*, *Fortune*, *Architectural Forum*), said:

No one can examine the problems facing our nation today without realizing that public education is more important now than ever before in our history. More than nine million adults have completed less than five years of school, but what is even worse, uncounted millions of our children are today being handicapped by grossly inadequate schooling.

Professional educators, many conscientious school boards, the parent-teacher associations, and other groups are working hard for better public schools. But the problems of public education are so broad that they concern all of us, and it is time for all of us to do something about them.

This is, of course, a new field for most of the members of the Commission. We are acting in the belief that all of us—businessmen, labor leaders, publishers, and others—have a real obligation to understand our schools'

problems and to help you in your continuing efforts toward more effective public schools.

The Commission hopes to serve directly community groups who wish to work toward the improvement of their public schools. It will serve as a clearing-house for the collection and dissemination of information on public-school problems in such a way as to enable local groups of laymen working for better schools to benefit from the experience of similar groups elsewhere. In this connection it is reassuring to note from the announcement that the Commission has no prefabricated program which it seeks to impose on America's schools but intends to confine itself to "discovering, describing, and generalizing sound and progressive developments in primary and secondary education throughout the country." The Commission's program calls, also, for the citation of groups of laymen who have made exceptional progress in improving their local public schools. Later, outstanding achievements of good public schools may be chosen for public citation.

The foregoing brief statement inadequately conveys the importance which should be attached to this national association of lay citizens on behalf of the public schools. Perhaps a better realization of its potentialities can be gained from an inspection of the names of the twenty-eight members who form the present nucleus of the Commission.

Roy E. Larsen, president of Time Incorporated, is *chairman* of the Com-

mission. Its other officers are James F. Brownlee, former deputy administrator of the Office of Price Administration, *vice-chairman*; John A. Stevenson, president of Penn Mutual Life Insurance Company, *treasurer*; and Leo Perlis, director of the National CIO Community Services Committee, *secretary*.

Besides the officers, the following members comprise the Commission.

Mrs. Barry Bingham, vice-president, Louisville (Kentucky) *Courier-Journal* and *Times*

Stuart Bradley, member of the Executive Board, Louisiana Education Foundation, New Orleans

John Cowles, president, Minneapolis *Star* and *Tribune*

Edward R. Eastman, president and editor, *American Agriculturist*, Ithaca, New York
George Gallup, director, American Institute of Public Opinion

Mrs. Bruce Gould, editor, *Ladies' Home Journal*

Lester B. Granger, executive director, National Urban League

Ralph A. Hayward, president, Kalamazoo Vegetable Parchment Company, Parchment, Michigan

Robert Heller, Robert Heller & Associates, Inc., Cleveland

Palmer Hoyt, editor and publisher, Denver *Post*

Mrs. Samuel A. Lewisohn, chairman, Board of Trustees, New York Public Education Association

Walter Lippmann, columnist, Washington, D.C.

Robert Littell, senior editor, *Reader's Digest*
Stanley Marcus, executive vice-president, Neiman-Marcus Company, Dallas

James G. K. McClure, president, Farmers' Federation, Inc., Asheville, North Carolina
George Houk Mead, chairman of the board, Mead Corporation, Dayton, Ohio

Mrs. Eugene Meyer, Washington (D.C.)
Post

Raymond Rubicam, co-founder of Young & Rubicam, Inc. (New York), Scottsdale, Arizona

Beardsley Ruml, chairman of the board,
R. H. Macy & Co., Inc.

Harry Scherman, president, Book-of-the-Month Club

Louis B. Seltzer, editor, *Cleveland Press*

Richard Joyce Smith, partner in law firm of Whitman, Ransom, Coulson, and Goetz, New York

Charles Allen Thomas, executive vice-president, Monsanto Chemical Company, St. Louis

Judge Charles E. Wyzanski, Jr., U.S. district judge for Massachusetts, Boston.

THE ADVERTISING COUNCIL

THE National Citizens Commission is not, of course, the first nor the only group of lay citizens who have united their efforts for the improvement of the nation's schools. For example, the Citizens Federal Committee on Education, representing business and manufacturing, labor, agriculture, homemakers, religious groups, Negro groups, professions, and veterans, has rendered distinguished service on behalf of the schools. Foremost perhaps among the lay efforts to arouse public opinion concerning the crisis in American education during and following the recent war was that of the Advertising Council, a private, nonprofit, nonpartisan organization supported by advertisers, advertising agencies, and the advertising media groups. In addition to its officers, there is a Board of Directors composed of about fifty leading executives in business, advertising,

and publishing; an Industries Advisory Committee; a Public Policy Committee, composed of men and women who have distinguished themselves in education, publishing, labor, business, and public service; and a staff which expedites the Council's program.

The Council was organized several years ago for the purpose of utilizing advertising in the solution of national problems. It seeks, first, to identify those nonpartisan, public problems which most urgently require advertising assistance and, second, to mobilize all phases of advertising on behalf of those problems. Among the national projects chosen for intensive promotion, those of greatest interest to educational people are these: Better Schools Campaign, Our American Heritage (The Freedom Train), Accident Reduction, Forest Fire Prevention, Red Cross, Student Nurse Recruitment, Fight Tuberculosis, Atomic Energy, and United America.

When a national project has been approved, the Council appoints a volunteer from industry as co-ordinator and invites one or more advertising agencies to serve, without compensation, as advisers in the preparation and direction of the campaign. In the case of the Better Schools Campaign last year, Benton and Bowles, Incorporated, one of the nation's leading advertising firms, served as the volunteer agency. Under the direction of this agency and in co-operation with the United States Office of Education, the Office of Government Reports,

and the Citizens Federal Committee on Education, the Council's technical staff prepared full-page advertisements dealing with several aspects of the crisis in education and produced fact sheets useful to radio stations. National advertisers were persuaded to sponsor these advertisements and to pay for time on radio programs. During the Better Schools Campaign last year, more than 250 national advertisers contributed advertising space and radio time of a value estimated at a million dollars.

Three reasons prompt the writer of these news notes to comment on the formation of the new National Citizens Commission and the activities of the Advertising Council. First of all, the readers of this journal, whether teacher, school administrator, or patron of the schools, should derive considerable encouragement from these nation-wide efforts on the part of able and prominent lay citizens. Teachers and administrators are sometimes discouraged over low salaries, inadequate facilities, and often public apathy. A number lose hope and leave the profession. Wider knowledge of lay enterprises such as those described should lift our hopes and renew our strength.

Furthermore, mention of these activities in these pages is, in a small measure at least, public acknowledgment by members of the profession of the aid which these lay citizens are giving to the public schools. We ought to let them know that we are mindful of what they are doing.

Finally, we should view these lay

activities as a refreshing reminder of the fact that the public schools in this country have flourished largely through the efforts of lay people in local communities. There is some danger that the growing paternalism of modern government will stifle local initiative and responsibility for the schools and will tend to salve the local civic conscience by focusing the solution of the problems of public education upon increased financial aid from larger and more distant units of government. No one will gainsay the need for greater and more equitable financial support for schools for all the children. That too! But the National Citizens Commission and similar efforts of other lay groups appeals once again to every citizen to give the public schools in his local community a high priority among his civic obligations. The media of mass communication—the newspaper, the radio, the large circulation magazines, and the billboard—are being utilized in an unprecedented manner and degree to bring to the attention of citizens in every community the crucial need for better schools.

A HANDBOOK FOR CITIZENS

IN ADDITION to the co-operative efforts represented by the Citizens Commission and the Advertising Council, many business and industrial firms and other organizations have undertaken individual enterprises on behalf of the schools. One of the most recent of these to come to the writer's attention is a small handbook for citi-

zens entitled *Schools Are What We Make Them*. This twenty-four-page booklet, prepared in collaboration with the Research Division of the National Education Association, is published and distributed by Bell and Howell Company, of Chicago, makers of cameras, projectors, and related accessories.

In a brief Preface to the booklet, C. H. Percy, the new and youthful president of the firm, says:

This *Handbook* has been designed to assist the many Americans who have become concerned over the present plight of schools throughout America, and who want to do something about it. Most of us realize it is not enough to *want* superior teachers, well-planned and properly constructed school buildings, and courses of studies aimed at the building of better communities and a stronger America. It is not enough to *want* these things; we must be willing to *work* for them.

And, if our program of action is to be a positive one, we must acquire the ability to analyze objectively the aims and attainments of our local schools.

This booklet supplies some of the professional information you will require in making such an analysis. I sincerely hope you will find it of great value in formulating the educational policies of your community.

This handbook is, indeed, a rich source of information and practical suggestions for every citizen, giving in concrete terms what he can do and ought to do to improve the schools of his community. Teachers and other educational workers, too, will find in it a source of useful information and practical help in thinking about our schools. The booklet closes with a challenging open letter by Paul A.

Wagner, who formerly was educational director and vice-president of the company but who this summer took up his duties as president of Rollins College.

Copies of the booklet may be obtained by writing Bell and Howell Company, 7100 McCormick Road, Chicago 45, Illinois.

EDUCATION FOR SAFETY

ADVICE and demands from many sources on what to teach in secondary schools continue to bewilder the teacher and school administrator. Parents, politicians, pressure groups, and fellow-educators—all contribute to the growing list of objectives. The schools are advised that the purpose of education is the cultivation of the intellectual and moral virtues; the development of good citizens for local, national, and world communities; the promotion of better intergroup, interracial, and international relations; the transmission of core values and American ideals; the nurturing of well-integrated personalities; training in vocational competence; and a host of other goals. To determine what education is of most worth will, of course, always remain one of the principal tasks of the educator.

Among the urgent demands upon the schools with which school men must deal is that of safety education. The accident toll has reached such appalling numbers as to constitute a serious threat to our national well-being. The severity of the problem is dramatically stated by Ned H. Dear-

born, president of the National Safety Council, in an article entitled "Accidents—A Threat to Democracy!" in the May issue of the *Educational Forum*. Mr. Dearborn has so clearly presented the problem that we take the liberty of quoting at some length from the opening portion of his article.

There was a knock on the door. The professor looked up, took off his reading glasses, and said, "Come in."

It was the exchange student from Mars.

"Oh, professor," he began. "I am so glad I found you in. I need help to understand this."

With that, the exchange student spread the newspaper in front of the professor and pointed to a story from the National Safety Council. The story dealt with the 1948 accident toll in America and the following figures stood boldly forth:

Killed—98,000

Injured—10,300,000

The cost—\$7,200,000,000

"Professor, why were these people killed? Were they bad?"

"No."

"Then, were they ill? Incurably ill?"

"No."

"In this society, do you kill off your old people when they can no longer make a contribution to society?"

"No, no," said the professor. "Accidents kill people of all ages."

"These 98,000? Were they unhappy? Were they suicides? Failures?"

"Oh, no."

As the professor pondered how to explain accidents to the exchange student, the latter stood nervously fingering a pile of term papers waiting to be graded. The titles bore a remarkable similarity—"Education for Democracy," "Education in a Democracy," "Education Contributes to Democracy," "Education, the Hope of Democracy." A great light broke over the exchange student's face.

"I know. These people," he said, putting

his finger on the 98,000 killed numeral, "constituted a threat to your precious democracy. Is that not it?"

The professor sighed and turned to his term papers, adjusting his spectacles on his nose. "Go find Mrs. Professor and ask her to give you a cup of cocoa," he said.

These foreign students. I wonder if it isn't a mistake to bring them here. Threat to democracy, indeed! Poor, kindly old Mrs. Jones. Why was she killed? Missed her step in a dimly lit hallway. And that Senior last year—would have graduated *summa cum laude* had he not been drowned three days before graduation. And Billy Smith. My, what promise that boy had—intelligence, initiative, personality. And what was he doing when he was killed? Building a snowman in his own front yard. The driver of the car probably wasn't to blame, she skidded and Billy was fatally squeezed between the car and his home. Billy Smith—threat to democracy indeed! It is the Billy Smiths who are the *hope* of democracy and yet—the professor's eyes strayed again to the news story giving the age breakdown—we actually kill about 6,000 Billy and Jane Smiths (5 to 14 year-olds) annually.

How long will society let this slaughter go on? Threat to democracy? Well, perhaps the exchange student has something there—just mixed up on his antecedents. It is not the accident victim but the accidents which threaten democracy.

No one will deny that our accident toll is a national and, indeed, ignominious disaster. What is the solution? Unquestionably, it is education! But whose responsibility is it to educate? Mr. Dearborn is clear in his view that education for safety is the responsibility of all the educative agencies in the community: the home, the school, the press, the radio, the motion picture, motor clubs, and industry and business. Because it is an educational job, the school may well assume the leader-

ship in enlisting and integrating all these educative agencies in a unified attack upon the problem.

Many schools have already assumed responsibility for driver education in co-operation with such organizations as the American Automobile Association. In a recent news release the AAA stated that last year approximately 340,000 high-school graduates had behind-the-wheel training in car operation. In other words, approximately one-fifth of this year's graduates learned to drive in dual-control cars, while some 200,000 others received instruction in safe driving methods in classroom work. The AAA also reported that a total of 2,900 dual-control cars have been assigned to schools through the co-operation of automobile manufacturers and dealers and motor clubs. Also, AAA educational consultants conducted 68 high-school teacher-training institutes last year, attended by 1,800 prospective teachers of safe driving. To date, 6,000 teachers have participated in such courses through their auspices.

The Accident Department of the Association of Casualty and Surety Companies of New York also has assisted in the training of teachers of driver education. In co-operation with the Center for Safety Education at New York University, the Association provided staff for 93 driver-education institutes attended by more than 2,300 teachers and administrators. Five-day institutes in driver education for teachers are being conducted this summer in twenty states. These concentrated sessions cover such top-

ics as "development and social influence of the automobile, driver attitudes and their improvements, principles of skilful driving, materials and use of supplementary teaching aids, comparative value of classroom and behind-the-wheel instruction."

Schools interested in driver-education and training will welcome certain new instructional materials recently announced by the American Automobile Association. A second edition of *Sportsmanlike Driving* has been issued, together with a *Teacher's Manual*. The volume is designed as a textbook for high schools. The school price of the book is \$1.67 per copy and of the *Teacher's Manual* \$0.53. A set of objective tests for the book has just been completed and is now available. The AAA has also announced the development of a Simplified Distance Judgment Test for training students to judge relative distances. Schools may purchase a complete kit of parts for building the test. The kit may be purchased for \$8.15 from local AAA Automobile Clubs or from the American Automobile Association, Traffic Engineering and Safety Department, Washington 6, D.C.

BUSINESS-SPONSORED TEACHING AIDS

MENTION in the foregoing section of the teaching aids and other services made available to the schools by the American Automobile Association and the Association of Casualty and Surety Companies raises once again the question of the desirability of using business-sponsored teaching

aids. School people are aware of the tremendous amount of free and inexpensive instructional materials now available through the courtesy of business and industry. In recent years labor organizations and government have also entered the field. It has been estimated that the funds invested in these materials annually exceed the combined school budgets of six of our smaller states.

Heretofore little objective information has been available concerning the nature, purposes, and content of these curriculum materials. School people will, therefore, find interesting, and no doubt useful, a recent publication entitled *A Report about Business-sponsored Teaching Aids* by Thomas J. Sinclair. The report is a condensation of a manuscript which Mr. Sinclair submitted to Northwestern University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. The study presents the viewpoints of business representatives, classroom teachers, and school administrators on current practices in the production, distribution, utilization, and evaluation of business-sponsored teaching aids. The report is published by F. A. Owen Publishing Company, Dansville, New York.

HIGH-SCHOOL SENIORS TELL THEIR STORY

DURING the depression years particularly, a number of large-scale studies of youth were made in an effort to understand their problems and to devise programs to meet their

needs. Most of these studies were concerned with the unemployment of youth and its resulting problems. Although our interest in youth since then has not waned, few large-scale surveys have been made. For this reason teachers and administrators will want to examine a recent state-wide study of high-school youth in the state of Washington. This study by L. J. Elias, of the State College of Washington, is reported in *High School Youth Look at Their Problems*.

A twelve-page questionnaire calling for opinions concerning their schools, their families, their friends, and their futures was filled out by 5,500 high-school youth, of whom 4,500 were Seniors, from 154 of Washington's approximately 300 high schools. The survey was an attempt to get a picture of the problems young people face and the attitudes they develop toward their difficulties. The questionnaire contained items relating to parents, home, and family; school life; boy-girl relations; personal worries and problems; social and vocational problems; finances; morals, ideals, religion; and their futures.

The volume contains, first, a copy of the twelve-page questionnaire and, second, a tabulation of the answers from the 5,500 students. Some of the data should be of considerable value to teachers, counselors, and curriculum makers.

Forty per cent of students said there was no one in their school who they felt had the ability to help them in making a choice of vocation. Re-

lated to this is the response to a question concerning things which they thought the school might do to prepare them better for life. Nearly half the students thought wider course offerings should be provided, and 44 per cent wanted more vocational courses.

In response to the item, "I think information concerning sex should be obtained from:" 61.6 per cent replied "parents and adults at home"; 4.3 per cent, "church, Sunday school, minister"; 1.5 per cent, "older kids, magazines, movies"; 44.8 per cent, "class and supervised discussion groups"; and 11.6 per cent, "adult counselor of their choice." But in response to the item, "Most of the information I have about sex I received from:" only 16.1 per cent said they got it from "class and supervised discussion" and 38.3 per cent from "older kids, magazines, and movies." Furthermore, in response to the item "Concerning class instruction in high school on wholesome sex attitudes and preparation for successful marriage," 70.3 per cent said they thought it was "very important and helpful" and another 19.5 per cent said it would be "interesting and useful." Only 1.4 per cent said they had "no interest in such instruction."

The foregoing items are only a few of the many informative and challenging results of this survey. Schools which may wish to make a similar study may secure the questionnaire, which bears the same title as the report, from Students Book Corporation, Pullman, Washington. Single

copies are 25 cents; in lots of 15 or more the price is 15 cents plus postage. The study itself, including the questionnaire and the tabulated results, may be procured from the College Bookstore, State College of Washington, Pullman, Washington, for 75 cents.

NEW DIRECTORY OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS

THE United States Office of Education has recently issued a new *Directory of Secondary Schools in the United States*. It is the most comprehensive guide to information about high schools ever issued in this country. It lists by name more than 27,000 secondary schools, both public and private, of all organization types, including junior high schools.

Specifically presented for each public high school listed in the directory are the type of organization, number of years in the school, city size, the race served, enrolment by sex, the number of graduates in 1946, and the total professional staff. Private high school information covers enrolment by grades and by sex, number of graduates in 1948, and professional staff. Schools which are accredited by either a state or a regional accrediting agency are so designated. In this respect, the new directory is a revision of Office of Education Bulletin Number 4, 1944—*Accredited Secondary Schools in the United States*. Principal requirements of state and regional accrediting agencies and associations also are offered in the publication.

The Office of Education high-school directory should prove particularly useful to college admissions officers charged with selection of high-school students for college study, to those who counsel high-school students, to research workers in secondary education, as well as to parents who want to know that the high school they choose for their boy or girl is an accredited school.

Copies are available from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C., as Office of Education Circular 250. The price of a single copy (496 pages) is \$1.50.

NEW BOOK SERVICE FOR SCHOOLS

A CENTRAL agency for distribution of 25-cent and 35-cent books to elementary, junior and senior high schools, and to teacher-training schools has been established by *Scholastic Magazines*. Scholastic Book Service will be the exclusive distributor to schools for Pocket Books, Bantam Books, and New American Library of World Literature.

The initial list includes approximately 125 titles. All books have been approved by school authorities, and most are on reading lists of the American Library Association and the National Council of Teachers of English. Many are included in the *Wilson Catalog for High School Libraries*.

The three book publishers and *Scholastic Magazines* inaugurated this new service so that schools could be assured of immediate delivery of books of any or all of the three pub-

lishers in any quantity. A large supply of the listed books has been centralized in one warehouse. In the past, because publishing of low-priced reprints is based on the principles of low inventory and quick turnover, no publisher could guarantee consistently to keep on hand a supply to handle school orders.

To aid teachers using 25-cent and 35-cent books in such fields as English, social studies, and history, Scholastic Book Service has arranged seven groupings of titles. These groups and samples of titles under each are:

AMERICAN LIFE AND LITERATURE

House of Seven Gables, Babbitt, Mama's Bank Account, Lantern in Her Hand, Life on the Mississippi, Scarlet Letter

GROWTH OF THE UNITED STATES

Autobiography of Benjamin Franklin, Only Yesterday, No Place To Hide, Cimarron, Human Comedy, Economics in One Lesson

ENGLAND AND ENGLISH LITERATURE

Captains Courageous, Shakespeare's Comedies and Tragedies, Oliver Twist, Tale of Two Cities

THE WIDE WORLD

The Odyssey; The Good Earth; Wind, Sand, and Stars; Green Mansions

SOURCE BOOKS AND COLLECTIONS

Poe, Emerson, Roget's Thesaurus, Poetry

FOR MATURE STUDENTS

Emerson's Basic Writings, No Place To Hide, Only Yesterday, Patterns of Culture

FOR RELUCTANT READERS

Bring 'Em Back Alive, Junior Miss, Home Ranch, Our Hearts Were Young and Gay

Scholastic Book Service offers special discounts to schools on orders of ten or more books. Listings of books and information about this new

agency may be obtained from Scholastic Book Service, 7 East Twelfth Street, New York 3, New York.

A NEW JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

THE number of educational journals in this country is so large that announcement of a new one is hardly likely to attract attention. However, readers of this journal will, for a number of reasons, want to examine the *Quarterly Bulletin of Fundamental Education* which made its appearance early this year. First of all, it deserves notice because it is an international journal of education. And in the second place its devotion to "fundamental education" merits recognition.

The *Bulletin* is published in Paris by the Fundamental Education Division of UNESCO. Its purpose is primarily to "draw attention to experiments and projects in fundamental education which seem to offer fresh lines of attack on old problems." It will serve as a medium of world-wide dissemination of information and as an exchange of views on the problem of making basic education available to all the peoples of the world. In defining fundamental education for all peoples, the first issue of the *Bulletin* put the matter this way:

The provision of universal, free, and compulsory primary education for children is clearly an ultimate ideal for all fundamental education programmes. Such programmes must, however, "be concentrated first upon the most pressing needs and problems of each particular community," and it may be found that a campaign for better health or improved cultivation, directed to the adult population, may take precedence even over the provision of the first school.

Moreover, fundamental education programmes should fit into a national education system. Secondary, university or higher technical education, although outside the operational scope of fundamental education, are none the less essential to it, first to provide an outlet for the aspirations of the individual (it is a declared aim of fundamental education to provide "a first step to further education"), and, secondly, to train the future teachers, extension workers, and leaders of educational, social, and economic activity for the community.

Fundamental education itself "will aim to reach all sections of the community, children and adults, women as well as men," to stimulate their initiative, to encourage their active co-operation, to give them the basic knowledge and rudimentary skills necessary to their social and economic progress. It must not be assumed, however, that low living standards can be materially improved, beyond a certain point, by educational means alone. Education should, therefore, be integrated with economic development schemes (agricultural improvement, co-operatives, the development of local crafts and industries) with social services (such as medical services and sanitary engineering), and with more enlightened and democratic methods of local government.

Correspondence concerning the *Bulletin* should be addressed to the Director-General, Fundamental Education Clearing House, UNESCO, 19 Avenue Kléber, Paris.

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS USEFUL TO TEACHERS

ONE of the services which this journal attempts to render through these news notes is drawing attention to certain fugitive materials useful in teaching. A number of such items have come to the writer's desk in recent weeks.

Current economic statistics Multi-colored charts containing the latest available economic statistics together with explanatory materials are being made available free to teachers in secondary schools as a public service by the Industrial Conference Board of New York. These weekly charts, called "Road Maps of Industry," present facts on all important business and economic developments. They are based on current data furnished by government agencies and other accredited sources. The source of the data upon which the charts are made is given on each chart. The charts are $8\frac{1}{2}$ by 11 inches and punched for loose-leaf notebooks.

As the Board points out, the charts and statistics which appear in most textbooks are at least a year old by the time the textbook manuscript is written or revised, edited, printed, and ready for distribution as a bound book. Some standard textbooks have not been revised for a number of years. The Board's weekly charts, on the other hand, include current statistics scarcely available from any other source. The service should be of inestimable value to social-studies teachers particularly but also to teachers in a number of other fields. The Board will send these graphs free as they are issued each week to teachers who request them.

The Industrial Conference Board is a nonprofit research institution with headquarters at 247 Park Avenue, New York 17, New York. Its re-

search, educational, and conference programs are made possible through the support of business organizations, labor unions, government bureaus, trade associations, libraries, colleges, and universities.

Recordings of contemporary poets For a number of years the Library of Congress, chiefly with the help of its Consultants in Poetry in English, has been making recordings of representative poems read by their authors, and it has collected copies of similar recordings made at Harvard University and elsewhere. Such recordings, because they capture a poet's emphasis and shading of tone, are recognized to be important in interpreting and appreciating the meaning of individual poems. However, primarily because of the high cost of production, relatively few records by poets have been generally distributed up to this time.

Twenty-five phonograph records of poems read by their authors have just been made available by the Library of Congress. Comprising the first five albums in a series entitled "Twentieth Century Poetry in English," the recordings have been prepared under a special grant from the Bollingen Foundation. A second group of five albums is now in preparation. The recordings are on 12-inch, double faced records of "unbreakable" vinylite. They may be purchased separately as well as in albums and are accompanied by leaflets containing the texts of the poems read, biographical

notes, and bibliographies. A catalogue listing all the titles included in the five albums may be obtained for five cents in coin from the Recordings Laboratory, Library of Congress, Washington 25, D.C.

New life adjustment booklets Two more booklets have been added to the Life Adjustment series published by Science Research Associates, 228 S. Wabash Avenue, Chicago 4, Illinois. These booklets, of which there are now eleven, have been prepared for young people to help them understand their social, personal, and school problems.

Understanding Yourself was written by Dr. William C. Menninger of the famous Menninger Foundation in Topeka, Kansas. The contents of the fifty-two-page booklet may be surmised from the titles of the parts: "How You Are Made Psychologically," "How You React," "Your Personality Takes Shape," "Your Personality's Bag of Tricks," "So What?" "Getting Help," and "Preventing Troubles."

The second booklet is entitled *You and Your Mental Abilities* and was prepared by Lorraine Bouthilet, instructor in psychology at the University of Chicago, and Katharine Mann Byre, formerly with the Bureau of Child Study of the Chicago Public Schools. This booklet, again addressed to young people, contains a treatment of "People Are Different," "Intelligence Is Important to You," "What Is Intelligence?" "The Primary Men-

tal Abilities," "Measuring Mental Ability," "How To Take a Test," and "Now It's up to You."

Prices of both booklets are seventy-five cents for single copies; sixty cents for fifteen or more copies; and forty cents each for one hundred or more copies. An Instructor's Guide is sent without charge when fifteen or more copies are ordered.

Free and inexpensive materials As pointed out earlier in these news notes, business, industry, foundations, government agencies, and other sources produce and distribute a large quantity of free and inexpensive instructional materials for use in the schools. Teachers and school administrators face a number of problems in connection with their use. Some teachers want to know where to get materials on given topics, and others are not certain of the educative value of the material. Both groups will find very useful a new catalogue, *Free and Inexpensive Learning Materials*, published by the Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee (twenty-five cents a copy).

This is not merely a catalogue of materials. It is a selected list. All entries included were personally examined and evaluated, by a trained staff. The judges evaluated each item in terms of content, timeliness of subject matter, and method of presentation.

HAROLD A. ANDERSON

WHO'S WHO FOR SEPTEMBER

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by HAROLD A. ANDERSON, assistant professor

of education, director of student teaching, and executive secretary of the Committee on the Preparation of Teachers at the University of Chicago. LEONARD V. KOOS, professor of secondary education at the University of Chicago, discusses the essential principles to be observed in state-wide community-college planning which he formulated through long experience and study in the field and through conducting several state-wide surveys. EARL C. KELLEY, professor of education at Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan, suggests that the school curriculum be revised to meet present-day demands and that it be geared to foster the growth of human understanding and co-operation. FRANCES HUMPHREVILLE, consultant in English and radio script at Danbury State Teachers College, Danbury, Connecticut, and teacher of English and speech at Bedford High School, Westport, Connecticut, describes a program of co-operation and interaction which was carried out in her home room.

PAUL B. DIEDERICH, associate professor of English and examiner in the college of the University of Chicago, at present on leave of absence for the purpose of doing research work at the Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, recommends the abolition of subject requirements as the basis for admitting students to college. DONALD H. YOTT, teacher in the Department of Social Studies, Pompton Lakes High School, Pompton Lakes, New Jersey, explains the purposes, techniques, and results of student campaigning and election in Pompton Lakes High School. PERCIVAL W. HUTSON, professor of education at the University of Pittsburgh, presents a list of selected references on guidance.

Reviewers of books ROBERT E. KEOHANE, assistant professor of the social sciences in the College of the University of Chicago. A. W. VANDERMEER, associate professor of education at Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pennsylvania. MARIAN R. BROWN, vocational counselor in the office of the dean of women, Cornell University.

ESSENTIALS IN STATE-WIDE COMMUNITY-COLLEGE PLANNING

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IT IS rather generally known that the junior college is now, and has been for some years, our most rapidly growing educational institution. Indorsement of the idea of the junior college by the President's Commission on Higher Education has been accelerating attention to the movement at the same time that it has helped to give the institution a more popular name, the "community college." Leaders among educators and laymen in hundreds of cities and in a number of states are, both as individuals and in committees, considering the problem of how best to implement the Commission's recommendations.

As some readers may know, the writer has long been a student of the junior-college, or community-college, movement. Over the years he has made several studies of general and special import in the field of the junior college. For administrative officers and boards of education in numerous school districts he has investigated the desirability and feasibility of local junior-college development. Since 1943 he has made something approaching comprehensive inquiries of the problem of junior-college estab-

lishment for legislative commissions in three states, namely, Illinois, Maryland, and Pennsylvania.¹ It has seemed to him that these contacts with the movement justify him in undertaking to distill from his inquiries and observations the essentials in state-wide community-college planning. These essentials will be set down as ten numbered generalizations that may be referred to as "elements" in state policies touching these institutions. In connection with the presentation, each element will be supported by illustrative evidence from the inquiries in the three states named, as well as from other investigations yielding conclusions of wider application.

STATE-WIDE INQUIRY

1. By far the most important recommendation to be made is that *proposals for community-college development in a state should be preceded by a state-wide inquiry*. The reason for this is that, if a plan of development is to be set up in a manner that will give

¹ Abstracts of the reports for Maryland and Pennsylvania have been published as articles in the *School Review*, LV (June, 1947), 324-38; LVII (April, 1949), 202-16; (May-June, 1949), 286-94.

assurance of optimum effectiveness of the units, it must take cognizance of existing school conditions and practices in the state along many lines. As is often emphasized in discussions of education in this country, development and control of education have been left largely to the individual states, with the result that in no two states are the school systems exactly alike. Even though the elements are presented as generalizations for more or less universal application, the variation in systems will call for differences in application, and these differences cannot be known or made without prior assembly of evidence of many kinds.

Such inquiries, or "surveys" as they are usually called, must be as nearly comprehensive and intensive as possible. In actual practice, the scope is limited by the resources of time and funds available. Among the most desirable lines of inquiry are the need for junior colleges, including consideration of the existing opportunities at the same level in higher institutions and the status and growth of junior colleges in the state; the problem of where to locate the new institutions; the problem of size of the units as measured by enrolments; their organizational relationship to other educational provisions in the state, including schools and school-district organization; the nature of the curriculum offering; the problem of support, including tuition or fees to be charged and local sources and state aid; the issue of control of the units at local and state levels; and, finally, since no state

inquiry can be exhaustive at the outset, the question of how to provide for continuing research on the junior-college problem.

All phases of investigation just listed, except that on the need for junior colleges, will be reflected in the formulation of the remaining elements to follow. On this account, a further word will be said here concerning this particular phase of state inquiries. In the state surveys, need has been shown by various measures. One such measure is the proportion of the population 18-20 years old reported by the federal Census as attending school in 1940. For example, for Pennsylvania the percentage was found to be 21.1, whereas the percentages of 16-17-year-olds attending school was 76.2. Another measure is the percentage of high-school graduates continuing their education at the post-high-school level. These figures have been reported for the state as a whole, as well as for the different counties, cities, or districts (among which strikingly wide variations were found). Also, the surveys have included inquiry into the influence on these measures of several factors, such as socioeconomic status, race, and proximity of existing opportunities for higher education. In view of the rapidly increasing advocacy of democratizing, or universalizing, the junior-college level of education, need has been assumed wherever the proportions of the population having the opportunities of these levels are relatively and notably low.

It is germane to the problem of

need for community colleges to say that existing higher institutions have not been found to be serving the need in any large degree. This fact may be illustrated by the situation in Pennsylvania, where the median percentage of high-school graduates continuing at the post-high-school level in 1947 in cities without opportunities was 20.8, and the median for cities with opportunities was 24.3, or only 3.5 per cent higher. Factors working to restrict the proportions were identified as high tuition rates of existing institutions, curriculums emphasizing preparation for more advanced levels or professional education almost to the exclusion of terminal general or occupational education, selective bases of admission, and denominationalism and sex segregation. In most instances, two or more, rather than one only, of these restrictive influences were operative.

LOCALISM VERSUS REGIONALISM

2. The type of institution most effective in democratizing, or universalizing, the post-high-school level of education is one that is part of the local school system. The term "*community college*" implies the policy of *localism*. The alternative is a policy of *regionalism*, which has been found by objective inquiry to be relatively ineffective in popularizing this level of education. The percentages of graduates of local high schools entering local junior colleges and regional junior colleges were both found to be large² and approximately equal. However, the percentages from high schools outside the districts of loca-

tion of the regional units were so small as to discredit the principle of regionalism. Units designated as regional are essentially local in function as tested by the distribution of student clientele. To be specific, the percentages of graduates of local high schools entering state, or regional, junior colleges and local public junior colleges were, respectively, 43.2 and 44.3, whereas the percentage entering the state institutions from high schools 7-15 miles distant was 12.7; it was 8.3 per cent for high schools 16-30 miles distant and declined further for greater distances from the regional units.²

Applying a policy of localism becomes a procedure of identifying communities likely to meet the criterion of a minimum prospective number of students. For this purpose the local high-school enrolment appears to be the best basis of prediction readily at hand. However, in all three states—Illinois, Maryland, and Pennsylvania—populous as they are, some districts were found not having high-school enrolments large enough to bring junior colleges within commuting distance of prospective students. For Illinois and Pennsylvania, which have small-district systems, plans of district consolidation were recommended to achieve minimum prospective junior-college enrolments. For Maryland, where the counties are the districts, co-operative effort with other counties on the part of a few counties

² Leonard V. Koos, "Local versus Regional Junior Colleges," *School Review*, LII (November, 1944), 525-31.

with small prospective junior-college enrolments was recommended; while, for a few others, even this co-operative arrangement seemed impracticable. For areas in Pennsylvania and for the two counties in Maryland for which operation of community-college units is manifestly impracticable, a policy of subsistence allowance for students who must live away from home while in attendance was recommended.

In the reports prepared on each of the three states, a map was introduced to identify the cities that should be considered as locations for the proposed units. These maps were an aid to visualizing the distribution of units over the state.

In our country there are, of course, states with much sparser distribution of their populations than the three named and with much larger areas and many more communities with prospective enrolments too small to warrant establishment of community colleges. Even for these, a primary and basic policy of localism would be preferable, on the scores of both democratization and cost, although in them it is necessary to concede more to regionalism to the extent of helping a larger proportion of students by means of subsistence allowances.

The policy of localism applied in cities of large population calls for more than a single community college. In the Illinois inquiry, it was found that, for Chicago, increasing distance reduced the proportions of high-school graduates continuing, and

addition of two or three to the three existing junior colleges was recommended there. The same consideration prompted recommendation of at least two or three junior colleges for white students in Baltimore in the Maryland report.

ENROLMENT, ORGANIZATION, AND CURRICULUM

3. In the literature on the subject, one meets with recommended minimal enrolments for community colleges ranging from 50 to 400 students. While the comprehensive and definitive inquiry on this issue is yet to be made, *considerations of an adequate curriculum offering and of costs per student have prompted the application of a working minimum enrolment of around 200 full-time students.* By an adequate offering is meant one, to be briefly described below, which is suitable both for terminal and for preparatory students. It has been found that, as enrolments drop below this working minimum, costs rise toward prohibitive levels. A minimum, rather than optimum, enrolment is used in the interests of localization and democratization. The working minima actually applied in the inquiries for Illinois and Maryland were 175-200 students and for Pennsylvania, 200. It need not be assumed that location of community colleges of fewer than the working minimum would never be approved, as consideration of sparsity of population in an area might justify occasional exceptions of smaller enrolments in a state, even at greater cost

per student, but they should be definitely regarded as infrequent exceptions.

Before actual application in the three state surveys mentioned, the minimal working enrolments were first converted into a criterion of high-school enrolment, or, rather, enrolment in Grades IX-XII, that would be required to assure the minimum enrolment in the average situation. The criterion was derived by use of a ratio of junior-college to high-school enrolment. For Illinois, the ratio was 1:3 because investigation had disclosed that, in tuition-free situations in the Midwest and California, junior-college enrolments averaged a third of the high-school enrolments in the same districts. The ratio applied in Maryland and Pennsylvania was 1:4, the smaller ratio taking account of the smaller proportions of high-school graduates in these states continuing their education at the post-high-school level.

4. Projection of prospective community-college enrolments by use of the ratios mentioned in the foregoing paragraph identifies only small numbers of localities where the enrolment would be likely to rise to as many as a thousand students. In Illinois, community colleges in only about a dozen districts would emerge to this enrolment level; in Maryland, outside Baltimore City, not more than two or three; and in Pennsylvania, hardly more than ten in addition to Philadelphia and Pittsburgh. The significance of this fact for the problem of organiz-

ing community colleges is apparent as soon as one calls to mind that these institutions cannot be self-sufficient in respect to plant and facilities unless, or until, they have around a thousand students.³

In this connection, it is worth noting that, of 167 local public junior colleges of the country in 1940-41 reporting information on their enrolments and organizational relationships, only 32, or about a fifth, enrolled 500 or more students and only 56, or about a third, were two-year units housed separately from high-school years. Most of the remaining two-thirds were housed with three-year senior or four-year high schools on a 3-2 or 4-2 basis and may appropriately be referred to as "associated" junior colleges or "associations." At that date, 10 were combined with Grades XI-XII as four-year junior colleges in school systems operating on the 6-4-4 plan, which include as the two lowest units the six-year elementary school and the four-year junior high school enrolling Grades VII-X.⁴ Since 1941 additional commitments have been made to the 6-4-4 plan, but the exact proportions at present of organizations of the three types, namely, two-year separate units, associations, and four-year integrations are not known. However, it is certain that associations and integrations still far outnumber the separate units.

³ Leonard V. Koos, *Integrating High School and College: The Six-Four-Four Plan at Work*, pp. 175-79. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1946.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 13.

Most persons when thinking of community colleges envisage two-year separate units, although in actuality the great majority of them are, and must remain, associations or become four-year integrations. Thus, *an essential element of state-wide policy touching community colleges requires integration or association of the two post-high-school with two or more high-school years.* The alternatives to such an element are two. One of these would be to set a minimum enrolment approaching a thousand students, insistence on which would so restrict the number and distribution of institutions within a state that democratization would be defeated by inaccessibility of opportunities. The other alternative would be to provide facilities and an adequate curriculum offering in separate units of small enrolments, but this would entail so high a cost per student as to be prohibitive.

Enhanced democratization of the post-high-school level and the expedience of economy are reason enough for integrating or associating the community-college with high-school years, but both integration and association have inherent educational advantages over the separate two-year units that add powerful support to this element of state-wide community-college policy. These educational advantages are not merely speculative but have been established in fact. A large-scale objective inquiry has found the following among educational advantages of the 6-4-4 plan:

(a) The four-year junior high school has

been found superior to the three-year junior high school, which in turn has an established superiority over these grades when organized under the 8-4 plan. (b) The four-year junior-college, or community-college, unit tends to bring with it a broadened and improved curriculum for both the later high-school and the post-high-school years and a much improved articulation of these levels. (c) The four-year unit, through its continuous program of guidance, tends to hold larger proportions of students through post-high-school years and to serve these students better. (d) Continuity of membership over a longer period of years in student organizations makes these organizations more educationally significant. (e) The fact that most instructors in the four-year units teach at both high-school and post-high-school levels is the best assurance of intimate vertical articulation of courses. Because teachers at the upper level are required to have more extended preparation, as measured by degrees and years of graduate study, the fact that they teach at both levels makes it possible for students at the high-school level in these organizations to be taught by better-prepared teachers.⁵

The same investigation found the associations on the 3-2 or 4-2 basis sharing these advantages of the 6-4-4 plan, but to a somewhat lesser degree.

5. If community colleges in a state-wide plan are to realize the advantages in democratization, economy, and education that accompany integration and association, *they must be established and maintained in vertically unified districts coterminous in boundary and with the same boards as districts maintaining schools at elementary- and high-school levels; that is, the same district organization should be responsible for all school levels from the kin-*

⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 187-92.

dergarten or nursery school through junior-college years, with a single board in control of all schools in the district.

The easy way for a district which is not large enough to meet the criterion of high-school enrolment needed for maintaining a community college is for it to consolidate with adjoining territory at the post-high-school level only, but this is not the sound way. Persons interested in the community college should take warning from the unfortunate experience in states with unionization, or consolidation, of territory for high-school purposes only. Immediate advantages of such separate high-school districts are larger prospective high-school enrolments and greater assessed valuations for high-school purposes, but these advantages are far more than offset by the permanent serious disadvantages, within these high-school districts, of lack of essential articulation of elementary and secondary education, including the absence of junior high school reorganization; needless duplication of costs; competition for funds, with the elementary-school district often beggared in the process; and resultant ill feeling where good will should prevail. Consolidation to achieve the larger school district for elementary- and high-school levels is hardly less desirable than for the post-high-school level, and it is, therefore, regrettable not to use community-college motivation for consolidating all levels at one time.⁶

A recommendation in the report to

the legislative commission in Illinois was that the state should continue the policy of encouraging close articulation of junior college with high school implied in the requirement of the existing law that districts establishing junior colleges be already maintaining high schools. Illinois is one of the states in which, with a minority of exceptions, elementary-school education and high-school education are administered in separate districts under autonomous boards. Because all but a small number of projected junior-college enrolments in this state were under a thousand students, putting into effect the recommendation would almost automatically yield 4-2 associations, especially since Illinois, because of its plan of district organization, lags behind most states in extent of junior high school reorganization. To permit rearing still a third autonomous district atop an existing dual system, as has been done in California, would be to erect a three-story monstrosity defeating almost all prospects of intimately articulated and flexible school arrangements.

The recommendation in Maryland was mainly for county-wide junior colleges, since in this state the local school district responsible for all school levels is the county. With the county district, the question of consolidation for community-college purposes hardly emerges, except that, as previously mentioned, co-operation

⁶ Leonard V. Koos, "The Junior College and District Organization," *School Review*, LIV (September, 1946), 389-400.

with adjoining counties was recommended for two counties with small prospective junior-college enrolments.

School districts in Pennsylvania are all unit districts, although, as previously stated, most of those maintaining high schools are too small to justify establishing community colleges in them. Therefore, consolidation would be necessary, if the proportion of districts and of areas of the state in which maintenance of community colleges would be feasible is to be increased. The report to the legislative commission urged that, in the interests of articulation and integration, plans of consolidation involve both post-high-school and lower-school levels, and not the post-high-school level only.

In both Maryland and Pennsylvania, much progress in junior high school reorganization has been made—a situation much more conducive to integration through instituting the 6-4-4 plan than is the situation in Illinois. Junior high school reorganization may be regarded as an important first step toward the 6-4-4 pattern, the second and the third being the addition of two post-high-school years to the senior high school and the retention of Grade X in the junior high school.

6. An enlightening clue to the kind of curriculum offering that should be made available in the junior college is the often-repeated testimony that fewer than a fourth of the entering students the country over have been found to transfer to higher institu-

tions.⁷ From this fact it may be inferred that the community college must serve both preparatory and what are called "terminal" students. While the proportions of these two main groups will vary from unit to unit, in the average situation terminal students will far outnumber preparatory student. Recent years have seen a movement, now on the verge of being rapidly accelerated, to *set up* (a) *a core of general education as nearly alike for all full-time students as may be* and (b) *two-way opportunity for specialization in terms of the students' interests and abilities, including* (1) *preparation for further work in university or college for the group planning to continue their education* and (2) *preparation for vocations at the subprofessional level for most of those who will not continue. The curriculum should also provide part-time offerings in wide variety for youth and adults.*

The terminal-occupational portion of the offering should be such as to meet the needs of employment in the community and the state. The main lines of this subprofessional preparation would be in technical, commercial, agricultural, and homemaking (and related) pursuits, and the emphasis in each community should be on preparation for occupations in that community and for occupations widely represented in many sections of the state. The occupations should be identified, and the preparation needed for

⁷ Walter Crosby Eells, *Why Junior College Terminal Education?* pp. 60-65. Washington: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1941.

employment in them planned on the basis of information derived from occupational surveys. Development of technical-vocational curriculums within comprehensive community colleges would set aside the need for separate technical institutes in a state.

TUITION AND STATE AID

7. *Community colleges should be tuition-free*, just as public elementary and high schools are free. The general assumption in advocacy of the spread of community colleges is that this level of education will become universalized in much the same degree as elementary and high schools have been universalized. A tuition charge of even moderate proportions has been found a serious obstacle to democratization. A large-scale follow-up study of high-school graduates in districts maintaining junior colleges found the proportion continuing their education in free-tuition situations 1.7 times the proportion in tuition-charging situations (where the annual tuition charge averaged less than \$100). It found the proportion of graduates in lower socioeconomic groups continuing in tuition-free situations almost 2.4 times that in tuition-charging situations.⁸ In the light of such evidence, the reports to the legislative commissions in Illinois, Maryland, and Pennsylvania could hardly do less than include recommendation of a free-tuition policy.

8. As with other aspects of community-college planning in a state, pro-

posed arrangements for aid should be rather similar to those for schools at lower levels, except that, because of the higher costs at the post-high-school level, provisions should be proportionately more generous. To encourage widespread establishment in the districts identified as meeting the criterion of prospective enrolment, *it would be well for the plan of aid to include both aid in "flat" amounts, say on a per student basis, and aid for equalization.* In all the studies made, the ability of districts to maintain community colleges has been found to vary widely, so that for some districts the burden would be relatively light while for others it would be prohibitive. Some aid on a flat basis would help to bring in relatively well-to-do districts reluctant to add the costs of maintaining a community college, while equalization, if generous enough, would bring in districts toward the other end of the range of ability to support the educational program. Adequate aid for equalization would set aside the need for specifying a minimum assessed valuation before a district can have a community college. Certain states have imposed such a requirement, thereby injecting a spurious criterion where an adequate source of students should be the primary concern. Financial provisions should also include (a) reimbursement of districts for the cost for attendance of nonresident students and (b) subsistence allowances for students beyond commuting distance who must live away from home while attending.

⁸ Leonard V. Koos, "How To Democratize the Junior-College Level," *School Review*, LII (May, 1944), 29.

The plans of state help recommended to the commissions in Illinois, Maryland, and Pennsylvania all included provisions both for flat aid and for equalization. Although the report in Illinois recommended somewhat more, the commission approved flat aid of \$50 per student and equalization, after local levy of a stated maximum rate, to yield a total of \$140 per student. The total had been set at a figure which was estimated to be large enough to support junior-college work in districts where other school costs, like the cost per student in high school, were found to be relatively low. Costs have risen so much since 1944, when the recommendation was made, that this aid would now be far out of line with need, and recent proposals for legislation by committees in the state have called both for more flat aid and for a more generous basis of equalization. The flat aid recommended for Maryland was at a rate that had, just previously to the making of the survey, been recommended for the lower schools by the Maryland Commission on the Distribution of Tax Revenues; this was to be \$400 per teacher and \$20 per pupil. Maryland already had in operation a generous plan for equalization for lower schools, and the report had merely to recommend that the junior college by legislation be included within the scope of the state's minimum program of education and that equalization funds be distributed for post-high-school years on the same basis as for lower schools. Aid in Pennsylvania is distributed to districts for

lower schools in proportion to the number of "teaching units," with flat aid plus equalization on the basis of an "equalization factor" computed for each district. The flat aid is \$700, with teaching units for elementary schools and secondary schools of 30 and 22 pupils, respectively. The plan of aid recommended for community colleges was the same, except that it was to be stepped up by using a teaching unit of 18, which was the student-teacher ratio found in a typical group of local public junior colleges.

It happens that in none of these three states is aid distributed specifically for the construction of school buildings, as is done in certain other states. It is, instead, distributed in relationship to over-all costs, including housing, instruction, etc. In states where it is the general policy touching lower schools to distribute aid separately for construction and for instruction and other expenditures, an analogous procedure should be followed in aid for the community college.

CONTROL OF, AND RESEARCH FOR, COMMUNITY COLLEGES

9. The simple recommendation concerning control of community colleges is that, as with other parts of the local school system, *the community college should, at the local level, be under the control and direction of the local school board through its chief administrative officer, the superintendent of schools, and at the state level under the supervision of the state department of public in-*

struction or, if there is a state board of education, under the supervision of this board with the state superintendent as its executive officer.

Owing to the fact that the community college operates at the post-high-school level, as does the state university, there is a traditional disposition among some advocates of community-college education to regard control and supervision of these emerging units as the prerogative of the states' higher institutions. It should be borne in mind in this connection that, over the period of the last half-century and longer, supervision of public high schools at the state level has been shifted from state universities to state departments of education to such a large extent that, in only a few states in the Midwest, for example, does the university any longer exercise control. Authority has been transferred to the state department because the function of the high school has been rapidly expanding beyond the merely preparatory service. Whereas formerly most high-school graduates entered higher institutions, recently, with the universalization of the high-school level, the proportion (not the number) of graduates continuing their education has increasingly diminished. As the terminal function of the high school has been magnified, the conviction has grown that its supervision at the state level should not be the province of an institution, like the state university, with an eye single to its preparatory service but, instead, of an agency by logic concerned with the high school's

broader service in education for citizenship, vocation, and the like.

An additional consideration of moment supporting supervision in the office of the state department of education or by the state board of education derives from the fourth and fifth elements of policy as presented above. These call for collaborative operation of high-school and post-high-school years. Not to have the same state supervisory agency for the two levels would lead to conflict and confusion in operation.

Recommendations of reports to the legislative commissions in Illinois, Maryland, and Pennsylvania were in accord with this element of policy as stated.

10. The unsolved problems at all school levels require policies of continuing research in state educational offices. However, *entrance of a state on what is for it a new educational venture like the community college calls for unusual investigative attention in the state supervisory office in numerous phases and issues in the whole wide post-high-school area.* A research approach to the phases and problems was in the main only implicit in reports to the legislative commissions in Illinois and Maryland but was explicitly developed in the Pennsylvania report. As lines of inquiry for the state agency of supervision in Pennsylvania the following were suggested:

(a) Intensive investigations of the need for, and promise of, success of community colleges in individual districts, investigations which would take into account the possibili-

ties of community-college service by existing institutions; (b) investigation of the possibilities of consolidation of districts that will encourage community-college development in areas with districts now too small to warrant establishing such institutions; (c) inquiry into the extent of the need for subsistence allowances for prospective students with residences beyond commuting distance from community colleges and the amount of the allowance needed by individual students and in the state as a whole; (d) investigation of occupational opportunities at the post-high-school level but of less than professional grade, findings of which will aid in developing terminal vocational curriculums; (e) investigations that will help community colleges in the development of suitable programs of general education; and (f) investigations relating to student-personnel programs and services that are indispensable to effective community-college programs.

INTERDEPENDENCE OF THE ELEMENTS

Concluding comment on the foregoing formulation of state policy for establishing and maintaining community colleges can be brief. It relates to an interdependence of the elements of policy which is so obvious as to warn

off effort at elaboration. Illustration should more than suffice. Interdependence is assured by the need for democratizing the post-high-school level. Democratization is practically impossible without applying the policy of localism which is implied by the term "community." The distribution of prospective students, even in populous states, calls for a working size of enrolment as small as possible, consistent with a minimally adequate program, and such a criterion of enrolment in turn requires integration or association of post-high-school and high-school years. Again, democratization, which dictates localism, requires that the program be tuition-free, and this cannot be assured, in view of the wide variation in ability of districts to maintain schools, without state aid, including generous provision for equalization. Thus, the policy to which the elements add up is internally consistent and all of a piece.

HOW THE HIGH SCHOOL CAN EDUCATE FOR HUMAN UNDERSTANDING

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THE secondary school is a recent creation of the American people. It has existed as we now know it for only about twenty-five years. If we exclude the building of our war machine, it is one of our largest recent productions. It costs us a good deal of money, and affects the lives of nearly all our youth for longer or shorter time. It is of primary concern to us as citizens, as it should be, since we intrust it with our youth and since it can have great influence in shaping the society to come.

NEED FOR CURRICULUM REVISION

People generally seem to have a vague feeling of dissatisfaction with the functioning of this institution. Too many young people find its offerings without meaning or challenge to them. This lack is reflected in the attitudes of the parents. Many of these parents, without being able to understand the difficulties which stand in the way of a truly functional curriculum, wonder why the school cannot do a better job. A better public understanding of the nature of these problems, and where we might all consider getting hold of them, might be helpful to all.

Few people who are involved in any

way with secondary-school work any longer deny that the secondary-school curriculum is in need of revision. The criticisms of the present academic curriculum are well known and oft repeated, so that they hardly need to be set forth here. There are those who even claim that, if the secondary-school curriculum is not drastically changed in the direction of meeting the needs of all youth, the institution will not survive the next crisis. They predict that the high school will be supplanted by such agencies as the Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Administration and will come to hold a minor place in the educational scene or disappear altogether.

Many more people are willing to admit the need for change than are prepared to face it in action. When we start to revise, with youth needs as our starting point, we get all mixed up. Our habits, patterns, and beliefs, grounded in the past, stand in our way.

It might be worth our time to set down some of the blocks which get in our way when we undertake curriculum revision.

First, we face the upsetting of rou-

tines which seem necessary and which have become dear to our hearts. We have lived by bells and forty-five minute-periods for so long that we cannot easily see how we can give young people an opportunity to work longer together. We know we have to have schedules, and the putting of flexibility into the schedule seems more trouble than it is worth. It is a move away from order, and order is something we have come to love for itself alone.

Introduction of flexibility is likely to cause additional work for the office. The office was doubtless established to facilitate the instructional program, but it has come about that the instructional program is now adjusted to the needs of the office. The people who work in the office are unlikely to be aware of the needs of youth or to be interested in change of any sort.

Second, we are likely to encounter opposition from those persons who feel a vested interest in some particular subject or procedure. This is the unhappy product of overspecialization and of the development of love of subject matter in itself. Related to this is the fear felt by overspecialized people that revision might bring about a situation in which they would be called upon to know something outside their specializations. The vested interest, plus the insecurity arising from the thought of strange subject matter, renders these specialists incapable of a rational approach to revision.

Third, we seem to be full of compulsive ideas and attitudes, and these

stand in our way when we start to abandon that which we have held good. We are afraid that young people will not learn unless we make them learn and that, even if they do learn on their own, their learning will be trivial and inferior to what we might have made them learn. This basic lack of faith in others, together with the feeling that we have to make things go our way, prevents us from granting the freedom necessary for the development of true responsibility.

Fourth, there is the vexing problem of evaluation. If learning is a personal matter, how can we measure it? And failing to measure, how can we maintain standards? The neater the package of subject matter, the more easily it is evaluated. Packages are unlikely to be neat unless neat people like us make them so. And evaluation is very dear to the hearts of teachers.

Many more blocks exist and could be isolated, but these are enough to show why it is that teachers and administrators, while admitting the need for revision, recoil from the task and decide that it is best to "let well enough alone." This in part explains why the curriculum is one of the least changing items in a rapidly changing world.

HUMAN RELATIONS

The most devastating criticism of the present curriculum is not often heard. It is that most of the activities in our high schools do not teach youth to understand other people. Human relations are surely our most important study.

This is the study which makes a person first understand himself and the motives which drive him. When he understands himself, he is then in a position to understand others. He needs to be able to put himself in the place of the other whom he would come to know better.

It is a study that reveals the barriers which separate people and which make communication difficult. Once recognizing the existence of barriers between people, the lack of good communication, and the resulting difficulty of sharing ideas, one is able to begin to improve relationships between himself and others. This improvement of personal relationship is endless in its implications. It spreads until it encompasses the whole of human affairs. It never can occur between masses of people unless it starts with individuals. It is the foundation of democracy.

We can see the need for better human understanding by taking a brief and casual look at our present society. The all-pervading fact of that society is conflict. We see virtual war now going on between the East and West, between employer and employee, between majority and minority, and between neighbors.

We can see the natural outcome of lack of communication and understanding between human beings. The simple truth seems to be that we do not know each other, and so we fear, then dislike, then hate each other. When fear and hatred go just so far, nothing is left but to strike. The

people of the world have struck twice within a generation—to the inestimable loss to all human beings who walk the earth. There have been no winners. Some have only lost less than others.

Yet this generation is the most schooled in the history of the world. It is regrettable that we cannot use the words "schooled" and "educated" interchangeably. Many of our present practices tend to drive people apart rather than together. It would seem that we must be holding and educating for untenable attitudes. Our patterns of living seem to be inadequate for a changing world. Our human understanding has not kept pace with—may even be going in the opposite direction from—our technology. And so we have learned to destroy each other before we have learned to understand and like each other.

It may be that our static curriculum has been teaching people to seek security in the past and that this is untenable in a changing world. The most fundamental fact of life is change. Thus when our youth, grounded in what we hoped was permanent, face this changing world, they become confused and insecure. This leads to fear and then to conflict. Our present situation seems to call for the development of a people who recognize change as a basic law, who are ready to face and even welcome change, and who get their security from confidence in their ability to meet a changing world. This calls for a people who have broken down some of the barriers

which separate them from one another, who have improved their methods of communication, and who have had a chance to grow in mutual respect.

If we can agree that building better human understanding for a changing world is a first obligation of the school, then the business of curriculum revision becomes simpler. We can judge our activities in the light of that objective, modify where it is possible, and reject where modification is impractical. We can make many changes in small ways, often without performing a major operation on schedules and course titles. We can start with what we know and understand and with those things in which we feel secure.

We can check our methods and procedures by asking ourselves a series of questions.

Does this activity, which went on in my class today, contribute to better human understanding, or does it have nothing to do with it? Why did I teach what I did today? Was it a matter of habit, or "discipline," or because of fear of the teacher in the next grade? Or was it because it had a bearing on the life that the youth is presently living and can reasonably be expected to live?

Did what went on in my class today actually improve the students' facility for communication, or did I pay so much attention to how my students talked or wrote that I could not notice what they said? If my

students were communicating at all, was it with each other, or with me? Was it about matters which concerned them, or about matters concerning which I felt they ought to communicate? Did I put a premium on free communication, or did I make silence more worthy?

Did my students have an opportunity to do things together, and thus learn to know and understand each other? Or did they work in isolation, really against each other? Did they have a chance to pool resources, to add up their separate knowings, so that all could become richer? Or did each keep his own knowing to himself to use to his fellow-students' disadvantage or discomfiture? Did my students get experience in the co-operative way of life, in which they could learn that their own ultimate good lies in the advancement of the good of all? Did they have a chance to help each other, or was helping each other frowned upon? Were my students less isolated from their fellows whom they must understand, or were the walls behind which we try to hide built higher and stronger?

Did today's activity make my students more adequate to face life in a changing world or less adequate? Did it lead people to live courageously or fearfully? Did it lead them to have more confidence in their fellows or to be more suspicious of them? Did it sow the seeds for mutual respect through knowledge of each other or for a doubtful attitude toward each

other? Were they nearer to personal peace with each other or more ready for conflict?

Much can be done for the improvement of human values in the classroom, no matter what the situation under which the teacher works. The better the condition, to be sure, the more can be done; but under no circumstances is it ever necessary for children to work in an atmosphere of conflict, in which they are pitted against one another or against the teacher. It is not ever necessary that they come out of a day's work thinking less well of one another than when they started the day.

This view of curriculum revision takes account of the fact that change has to come first in the heart and mind of the teacher. The teacher is not likely to throw over all that he has held good and start completely anew. He has to do as anyone else would do, and that is to work within the structure, habit patterns, and procedures with which he is familiar, going from them to better ways of doing things as he himself sees validity in the change.

Changing the curriculum is a creative job, and it has to be done by secure people who have workable procedures in which to operate while modification goes on. In this way the teacher is more likely to succeed than he would be if his whole structure were cut away. It would be even worse to get orders from above to modify his methods, "to be creative," without his seeing the need for it and the methods by which it might be brought about. Sound curriculum revision, then, comes as the teacher of good will shifts and changes his procedures within a secure setting as he takes stock of what he is doing.

This test of the human values contained in an activity or curriculum is easy to apply. It is universal in its nature. It is as applicable to the graduate school as to the kindergarten. It is basic to living, in school and out. It is a step in the direction of a peaceful world; for before we have peace between nations we must have peace between individuals. We must have people who hold attitudes which are tenable for living in peace.

INTERACTION IN HOME ROOM 225

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BACKGROUND

LAST year I was faced with a tenth-grade home room of thirty-five pupils who had been troublesome, unhappy, and unsuccessful in scholastic and citizenship achievements. Occasionally Mary Duly had made second honors, and some of the others had missed the goal by only a few points. Their combined attitudes were sullen; they covered their uneasiness by talking loudly and by taking an active interest in and participating in all athletics. The captains of the three major sports—basketball, football, and baseball—were all members of Home Room 225.

I realized that here were individuals with certain capacities and potentialities, with problems and needs. If I was to help them use the allotted time to best advantage, I would need to know more about them. I would need correct information on physical growth and defects; on mental, emotional, social, and personality development; on special talents and interests; and I would need to know something of their religious and moral values.

It took me almost three weeks to look up, and to become familiar with, the individual records. In our system,

we keep records from the time a pupil enters school. Various tests, with their results, records of teacher interviews, home visits, health findings, reports of the psychiatrist, summary of reading interests, and outside activities are all recorded. I used these records as observation background to help me build a complete picture of each pupil. They served, also, to help me understand each member's needs and to make sure that the group experience contributed to the individual's development and that he made his best possible contribution to the group.

CASE HISTORIES

A few of the problems can best be illustrated by actual case histories.

Nelson Price: Excellent musician. Had been superior student until his father's heart attacks and subsequent retirement from business had affected the family budget to such an extent that he had decided, "What's the use? There'll be no money for me to go to college."

Betty Franko: Rather unattractive; frail; spent two years in a sanitarium; not able to take part in many of the activities; absent quite often; too shy to shine in class competition but so anxious to be liked. She was taking a special course with a major in journalism.

Lillian Graether: Beautiful, red-haired daughter of the president of the largest bank. Sophisticated, spoiled; constantly disrupting the morale of the school by inviting one or two of her classmates to the huge dinner dances that her parents gave for her, loudly announcing the coming party for all to hear. I do not know why both boys and girls valued her condescension and her invitations so much, but they did. Hers was the practice of the shifting clique in its worst sense. For example, at the lunch table, she would save places for the favored friends of the moment while someone stood in line to get food for her. Tuesday's friend might arrive on Wednesday to find all the seats filled and to be greeted with a cutting remark such as, "Your teeth look as though they hadn't been cleaned in weeks." The amazing part of the whole performance was that, when Lillian decided to favor that pupil a few days later, all was forgiven.

Valerie Iverson: New to our school; very pretty; father a doctor; over-age and, if not overinformed about sex, certainly well informed and not hesitant about passing on the knowledge. I had more questions about petting and diseases, after I knew the girls better, than have come my way in twenty years! Valerie figures only briefly in this account; for early in November, when we had a four-day week end for the armistice holiday, she went to New York with a thirty-year-old man. A sudden illness in the family caused her mother to telephone the girl with whom Valerie was supposed to be visiting. Her parents located Valerie the next day, removed her from our school, and placed her in a strict boarding school. She writes to me now and then, but her letters tell me nothing. Her influence, however, was great and lingered for a long time after she had left 225.

On the joyful side of my ledger, I had material that I knew I could count on to start a new way of life for all of us.

David Conrad: Quiet; thoughtful; slow of speech and deed; unappreciated; waiting to be accepted. I admired a snapshot in his wallet, and he asked me to go home with him to see his baby brother who is the model for one of the national magazine covers. I did go to his home, and I had a delightful time with the family, the baby, David, and their pets. The walk was short, but I learned of David's interest in stamps, science, and golf. This was a beginning.

Anna Janega: A newcomer; born in Austria. She was a product of private schools, quiet, poised, considerate, and interested in everybody and everything in the room. She volunteered to take charge of the bulletin boards and opening exercises at the first home-room meeting, since she had done so in a previous school and enjoyed doing it. She had the happy faculty of getting others to work with her, and her piquant little face and gay laugh were soon popular throughout the school.

John Elliott: A Negro with a fine mind; wonderful spirit; outstanding athlete; loved and respected by his classmates; intelligence quotient, 128.

Eric Hullgren: Son of a famous artist who employed John's father as his butler. Not working up to ability; intelligence quotient, 116. Mischievous; rated in his cumulative folder as a trouble-maker; breaker of every school rule every day but invaluable from my standpoint for his enthusiasm, his ability to sway his classmates, his unselfishness, his genuine liking for John, his lack of meanness.

LENDING A HELPFUL HAND

To supplement my records and my everyday observations, I made home visits and talked privately with each of the students whom I did not have in class or club. At the end of September, I knew all of them much better.

In October we completed our general-organization drive for money to

support school activities, tea dances, paid assemblies, and other benefits for the students. Also in connection with our regular group guidance, which is the same throughout the school, we had reviewed parliamentary procedure and elected a home-room president. Luck was with me once more, for Michael Kranyak, football captain, received the most votes and promptly declined.

Mike was a "middle-of-the-roader." He was popular, fair in his studies, slightly indifferent, though courteous, to adults, pleasant to everyone in Home Room 225. His permanent folder had little in it, but at least I knew that he had kept out of trouble and detention.

"Why don't you want the job?" I asked.

"Well, I don't think that I could do anything with 'em. All the other home rooms will beat us at everything. The guys don't even want to go to school, or study, or help win games. I guess I'm not much better."

"I'm glad you're being sincere about it, Mike," I answered. "Thank you for speaking frankly. Perhaps you are right; but, since so many of your classmates have shown their confidence in you by a majority vote, I intend to add mine. If at the end of the marking period, you still feel that we are not co-operating, haven't tried to do better, then I'll ask the group to accept your resignation. Will you carry on until then? I have a feeling that we might surprise you."

Mike agreed, and the group cheered.

It was the first sign of enthusiasm that I had noticed.

The next weeks were busy ones. I had the complete group for about twenty minutes every morning, two forty-five-minute periods a week for group guidance, and part of the students for two more periods while others went to band, orchestra, chorus, student council, or Red Cross. Every Friday we went to assembly together. During these days I served as a private tutor and doubled as a parent, checking home work, helping to make time schedules for home-work study, reminding them to bring gymnasium suits and "sneakers" (demerits and detention otherwise), translated Latin, explained algebra and geometry, whenever and wherever I could. I formed the habit of arriving at school at least forty-five minutes before the first bell rang and of using my time for ten- and fifteen-minute periods to help those students who had common problems. Sometimes members of my home room brought their friends, and I helped them, too. I got to know many of the romantic attachments in these early morning informal sessions.

I encouraged each pupil to strengthen one weak subject at a time. However, we aimed to do well enough in all subjects to get passing marks. I taught as many study skills and ways to organize research and home work as time would allow. I had had training in remedial spelling, arithmetic, and reading, but I wished heartily that I had had more diagnostic work, so that I could do more work faster.

In my spare moments I did whatever I could in individual cases to ease strain and pressure. Through my work with two radio programs, I had close contact with many people in business. I asked a director to give my musician, Nelson Price, a tryout with an eye to future assignments. I also encouraged Nelson to form an orchestra and asked two schools to grant auditions, as a preliminary to being hired for the afternoon and week-end dances. Since Nelson is really fine material, he soon had more work than he could manage. His playing engagements served as an incentive to finish his home work. We worked out a timetable that would give him a balance of music, study, and recreation.

Through the physical-education department and the school nurse, I learned that a recheck showed Betty Franko improved, able to engage in light activities and exercises. These two pupils are samples of a happy ending.

Keeping notes of my observations, I found, as I had suspected, that: Mary Duly was gifted in almost every field and was exceptionally able in French and mathematics; Anna Janega was excellent in mathematics; David Conrad knew all the answers in Latin and science; Nelson Price was gifted in music and never tired of science; Lillian Graether had talent in art; Elizabeth Linton was almost as good as Mary but was especially interested in art and Latin; Betty Franko was wonderful in creative writing; and Martin McLean's back-

ground in history was unusually broad.

THE ADVISER SYSTEM

This was far better than I had dared to hope. I interviewed each of these students, and then all eight together, to explain what I hoped to accomplish. I asked them to help me in assisting the home-room members to understand their studies better and to become happier; I felt that their attitudes and citizenship would improve if their standing in their subjects could bring even a small measure of success.

All but Lillian thought that it was a good idea and promised to co-operate in any way I asked. We agreed that they were not to jeopardize their own records by giving more time than they could honestly spare; that helping and explaining would constitute our service, and not just giving answers or pointing out mistakes; and that we would help no one who had not made an effort to attack his own problem in some concrete way.

Mike came to our third meeting, and we discussed the method of presenting the plan to the remainder of the group. We made a careful choice of words because it was important to present the whole idea as effectively as possible. Almost everyone listened attentively, and there was no dissension.

My plan was strengthened that same day by the athletic coach's passing out the eligibility cards and telling the boys in no uncertain terms that, if they meant to continue to play,

they had better work. They knew that he meant it, too.

The advisers started work the next day. I gave them all the backing that I could and supervised carefully and unobtrusively to be sure that they were not making the other students too dependent upon us. As far as I was concerned, the whole project was a success when Betty suggested a sports theme for David's weekly composition and was rewarded by one of David's grand smiles.

"Why can't I do a series of main events?" he wanted to know. "I think that I've really got an idea how I could make them better than those we're using now for our reports to the paper. If you'll check 'em for me, Betty, I'll do something for you in return."

He did. At the next dance, he danced three times with Betty, gently and happily as befits a gentleman and star athlete, and saw to it, I'm sure, that his friends were also her partners.

THE RESULTS

I could not begin to tell all the changes that took place from then until June. Some days were discouraging. Sometimes we seemed to have reached a standstill, but the interaction of the group was truly amazing. By February, everyone took part in the co-operative planning for activities, services to the school, and obligatory duties to perform. Every member belonged to the general organization, the Junior Red Cross, and to some club. Almost everyone attended the

dances, and the boys and girls no longer sat in separate rows in assembly. The boys quite casually saved a place for me every week, so I too was a member of the group.

The first marking period found us with a few scattered U's (60 per cent and failure), a smattering of D's (poor but passing), no one but Betty Franko on Citizenship Honor Roll and Elizabeth Linton on the Second Honors list.

There were many Grade X's in the building, and some of them had eight members on both honor rolls. We, however, were not too discouraged. The boys had won a pennant in intramural football, and Home Room 225 had been cited for unusual co-operation in Junior Red Cross, in support of student council and school activities.

As soon as possible I reviewed each report card and citizenship booklet and allowed the pupils to talk freely about the problems which hindered good work. I learned a lot from these conferences and thereafter interviewed as many of the subject-matter teachers as I could to discuss the cases. The science and art teachers were particularly helpful. They promised to help build confidence in those students who needed it and to give extra assignments to the gifted ones. They kept their promises, too; for Nelson, John, David, and Eric reported that they had been allowed to take charge of a complete experiment and to lecture to the class about their research. Elizabeth, Mary, and Lillian, and

two others were supervisors of the main bulletin board as special advisers of the art department.

Did I have failures? I certainly did. Lillian never really improved beyond the point of superficial participation, though I felt that home pressure was partly responsible. Her mother told me that she hoped Lillian would not form any undesirable attachments in the public schools. She returned her daughter to private school the next year. I often wish that I had had an opportunity to observe Lillian further.

Another failure was Howard Valance. His marks were barely passing, but he seemed to enjoy school until family illness kept him at home for some time. We sent daily assignments to him, and the boys stopped in often to explain new work. Fortunately he was absent toward the end of the year and was promoted with his group. He failed to report to Grade XI, however.

Each marking period saw the pupils serving in increasing numbers on student council and the school newspapers, acting as ushers and receptionists, directing traffic for the

safety patrol, and winning new laurels in athletics.

Although I believe that awards are a questionable feature in school life, I mention that eight out of eighteen members chosen for the National Honor Society were from my home room that year. We won other things too: citizenship medals, music awards, a plaque for the best artist, and, of course, numerous letters in athletics.

The changed attitudes of the group reached even further than just our room. Elizabeth, the haughty one, invited one of the Italian girls to her beautiful summer home and wrote me about the grand time they had together. Mary's mother and Nelson's sister still bring me fresh cakes and other gifts. I visited almost every home during the year and enjoyed full co-operation in every instance.

I think, in retrospect, that the greatest good came from the real planning that the pupils did themselves—the happiness and satisfaction they expressed. They learned to work together for a common good, regardless of color or social position.

It was exhausting, but it was fun!

THE ABOLITION OF SUBJECT REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION TO COLLEGE

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AN INNOVATION

THE method of selecting students for admission to the College of the University of Chicago marks a new direction in education. Here, at last, is a privately supported college which has gone out of the business of running the secondary schools. Its whole section on "Admission" in its current catalogue occupies less than one page and does not specify a single subject that the secondary schools shall teach. It does not demand that the program of secondary schools be broken up into sixteen stove-length "units." It does not indicate which subjects are respectable and which belong in the academic doghouse. It does not say what the study of any subject should include or how the study of any subject should be conducted. In fact, it says nothing whatever about the program of secondary schools.

The only requirement for entrance to this college is that students be able to read, write, and think a good deal better than most students are now able to do. It feels justified in this requirement because, after testing everything imaginable over a period of fifteen years, it has discovered that

simple tests of these three abilities have a higher correlation with marks in all courses than any other measure it has ever devised and that no amount of checking up on the fulfilment of the standard entrance requirements has anything like this correlation. In simpler language, if a student falls down on the tests of reading, writing, and thinking, one can be fairly certain that he will be unsuccessful in this college. If a student has not taken one or more of the subjects traditionally required for admission, it seems to make no difference.

It may be objected that this method of selecting students merely sets up a different type of requirement and that it forces secondary schools quite arbitrarily and undemocratically to concentrate on reading, writing, and thinking to the exclusion of everything else. The answer to this objection is that it would be hard to find, or to imagine, a well-conceived and efficient program of secondary education, however experimental in character, which would not produce students who could read, write, and think. Whatever such a program may include, it is almost certain to develop

these three fundamental tools of all academic learning.

A second objection might be that the College is abdicating its responsibility to secondary schools. It is sometimes said that they obviously do not know what to teach and that colleges should offer them "leadership."

REJECTION OF THE OLD LEADERSHIP

Members of the College staff are not diffident about offering one kind of "leadership." Both orally and in writing they attack existing curriculums and offer vociferous suggestions for improvement. These suggestions, however, are offered in the open market of ideas, and the recipients are free to accept or to reject them as they see fit. It is a different matter altogether to serve notice on secondary schools that their graduates will not be admitted unless they have taken a certain program of studies. The College utterly rejects this sort of "leadership" for several reasons.

Unrealistic leadership.—The first reason is that everyone knows what college decisions about secondary-school requirements have too frequently been like. A committee assembles which has never taught secondary-school students, which knows nothing about the newer conditions facing secondary schools, which has never studied current theories or practices in secondary education, and which, in brief, knows nothing whatever about the subject on which it proposes to legislate. In the absence of knowledge, it bases its decisions on

traditions, prejudices, and vested interests. Secondary schools may frequently be wrong in their curricular decisions, but, at least, they are in touch with the problems with which their decisions deal.

Historical basis.—A second reason for suggesting that the colleges mind their own business and leave the secondary schools to mind theirs is historical. The system of uniform, standard college-entrance requirements is not an eternal fact of nature but the creation of men—and of a limited number of men—chiefly between the years 1893 and 1905. One strongly suspects that the prime mover behind the whole system was Charles Eliot of Harvard because no one else on those early committees approached him in capacity. When Charles Eliot looked out over the country in 1893, he saw the secondary schools floundering in hopeless confusion, because at that time each college set up its own requirements without reference to the requirements of any other college. As a result, if a secondary school wanted to send students to more than one college, it might have to offer as many as nineteen different courses in mathematics.

Charles Eliot was one of the great Americans: when he saw that something needed to be done, he simply went ahead and did it. He assembled a committee of ten eminent men, but none so eminent as he, known thereafter as the Committee of Ten. (The Committee was called together by the United States Commissioner of Edu-

cation, but Eliot became its spokesman and was largely responsible for securing the adoption of its recommendations.) The Committee, in turn, gathered together other committees in each of the major fields of learning then taught in secondary schools. All these then published reports on a standard program of studies which would be acceptable to both secondary schools and colleges. These reports had enormous influence and evidently actuated the further steps which led eventually to the creation of a uniform system of college-entrance requirements. The Committee on College Entrance Requirements, for example, meeting between 1895 and 1899 (chiefly in the Quadrangle Club of the University of Chicago, at the invitation of President Harper) began its report: "In order to give effect to the recommendations of the Committee of Ten . . ." Other reports betray similar influence, and by 1905 the system of uniform college-entrance requirements was not only established but was substantially what it is today.

Since then there has been a revolution in education, led by such men as John Dewey and Francis Parker. The movement began in the primary grades and swept up through the elementary school, completely transforming it. The elementary school of today is almost completely different from the elementary school of 1905 and is obviously a better place for children. But the secondary school of today is essentially the same as the secondary school of 1905. The move-

ment reached the secondary school tentatively in the twenties, very strongly in the thirties, and would have engulfed it also, but there was a breakwater around the secondary-school curriculum, built by the strong men of old between 1893 and 1905, which the waves could not surmount.

Consider the continuing influence of this breakwater. We pick up a typical current catalogue of an eastern college of liberal arts. The section on admission occupies fourteen pages. It prescribes in complete detail what a student is to study from the moment he enters high school until he leaves. There must be four years of English, at least three years of one foreign language and two of another, two years of mathematics, at least one year of social science ("preferably a period in history"), at least one year of natural science (with laboratory), and three electives drawn from a highly restricted list, subject to all sorts of requirements regarding majors and minors. For good measure, the college tells how the study of each subject is to be conducted.

It may be that this is a good program. It makes one suspicious, however, to realize that it is essentially the program of 1905, trimmed down a bit, but still recognizable in its main outlines. There is no evidence that this college has given serious study to the problem of the secondary-school curriculum since 1905. When it talks about its own program, its remarks make sense; when it talks about the program of the preparatory school, it

makes no sense whatever. Of course, the committee in charge of administering this antiquated program affects, in practice, the greatest liberality. The attitude seems to be, "These requirements are still on the books, because you know how hard it is to get changes adopted by a college faculty, but actually, if we know you and trust you, you may deviate as far as you like."

That is all very well for a rich preparatory school, visited annually by the "bushbeaters" from this college; for then all deviations may be adjusted in a spirit of friendly informality. But consider the high school in some small town in Indiana which has never sent anyone to that college until the son of the president of the local bank (and, incidentally, of the local school board) thinks he may eventually want to go there. The father looks over the section of requirements for admission and comes into the office of the principal roaring like a bull. Thereafter that school prepares for X college, whatever this does to the needs and interests of its other students. What the catalogue says, and not what the Committee on Admissions may do in individual cases, is what actually determines the offerings of most of our high schools.

Undemocratic leadership.—This situation cannot endure. We have, potentially, a magnificent system of public secondary schools. It represents the first serious attempt in history to educate all the children of all the people above the elementary-school level. Thomas H. Briggs estimated, in

1932, that we had already educated in free public secondary schools about sixteen times as many children, in proportion to population, as any other nation in the history of the world. About 85 per cent of our young people of appropriate age enter secondary schools, and about 45 per cent are graduated, while only about 15 per cent enter college, and 7 per cent are graduated. In almost every small community in the land, the high school is its finest building. It has replaced the cathedral as the symbol of what our people believe in and hope for. No feudal aristocracy, no merchant princes built these schools. The common people built them because they wanted their children to have a better life. This may be the finest achievement to date of American democracy. When a college, representing the old, aristocratic tradition, calmly tells such an institution what to teach, without having given any thought to the matter since 1905, its impertinence is staggering. It is high time for the tail to stop wagging the dog.

Unscientific leadership.—In addition to these practical, historical, and patriotic considerations, there is still a fourth reason for refusing to offer "leadership" to secondary schools. It is a scientific and experimental reason which, so far as we can detect, few colleges have taken seriously. Suppose the medical profession had conducted a crucial experiment to discover whether malaria is caused by the vapors. Suppose that it had studied fifteen hundred matched pairs of pa-

tients over a period of eight years and had produced evidence which demonstrated, beyond a shadow of a doubt, that malaria is not caused by the vapors. Suppose that the medical profession then wiped its brow and said, "That's over, thank goodness. Now we can go back to our theory that it's vapors."

Would not the rest of the world be horrified? Would we not ask the doctors whether or not they believed in plain facts which they themselves had discovered? Yet a precisely similar experiment has been conducted in education, and almost no college pays any attention to it.

This experiment was the Eight Year Study. It extended originally from 1933 to 1941 and then was given an additional lease on life for three more years. About three hundred American colleges agreed to admit the graduates of thirty secondary schools during this period without the usual requirements or examinations. The idea was to let these schools teach whatever they liked and then, by comparison with equally able graduates of traditional schools, to find out whether the standard college-preparatory program was really necessary for success in college.

The graduates of these thirty schools scattered to so many colleges that only questionnaire data could be gathered from some of them, but a really careful study was made in twenty-four colleges, representing all the major types of colleges in the United States. This study was conducted by college deans, to preclude

any suspicion that the results would be influenced by the interests of secondary schools. Each experimental student was matched with an equally able student who had observed all the traditional requirements, and there were fifteen hundred of these matched pairs. When professors were asked for opinions about these students, they were not told which were in the experimental and which were in the traditional group. They frequently leaped to the conclusion that all the students about whom they were asked questions were "experimental," and hence broke into a tirade against some typical benighted product of progressive education who, it turned out, was a graduate of the most respectable, conservative school in the neighborhood.

The results are published in the fourth volume of the Report of the Eight Year Study, entitled *Did They Succeed in College?*^{*} The answer was that they did. Even in marks they did just as well as the students who had had the usual preparation, and, in many other respects, they did better. When the thirty schools were divided into those which had departed most radically from the conventional curriculum, those which had changed least, and those in the middle, it proved that, if one is interested in marks in college, the best thing to do is to be as radical as possible; the next best is to stand pat; the worst is to stick to the middle

^{*} Dean Chamberlin, Enid Chamberlin, Neal E. Drought, and William E. Scott, *Did They Succeed in College? Adventure in American Education*, Vol. IV. New York: Harper & Bros., 1942.

of the road. All these conclusions were guarded by such careful statistical controls as to allow no doubt of their validity.

Our system of public secondary schools, therefore, is in the grip of a standard curriculum which is based on the fundamental premise that the pursuit of certain prescribed studies is essential to success in college. It has been proved, as completely as anything in life is ever proved, that this premise is false.

Simplification of admissions programs.—The last reason for rejecting the "leadership" of secondary schools is that this step simplifies and clarifies the program of admissions. When a college insists on the fulfilment of a certain preparatory program, several competent persons must spend all their time trying to decide questions such as whether twelve hours of hygiene offered in Fort Worth fulfils the requirement in biology and whether the course in business administration taken in Louisville can be credited as social science. These examiners would be better occupied in saying their prayers. When they finish all their laborious calculations, they still know nothing whatever about a student's chances of succeeding in college. No substantial correlation between the pattern of courses taken in secondary schools and marks in college has ever been found.

THE CHICAGO PLAN

In contrast to this ineffective procedure, the College of the University of Chicago now offers three simple

entrance tests, which may be taken anywhere that a responsible proctor can be found. There is a test of reading comprehension, which at present has ninety multiple-choice questions on the interpretation and analysis of five passages, each about a page in length, representing the major types of materials to be read in the College. It is significant of the depth of analysis required that students are allowed seventy-five minutes to finish these ninety items (and practically all do finish in that time), while one of the most widely used of the standardized reading tests also has ninety items but allows students only 25 minutes.

There is also an objective test of writing skill. The large number of students to be tested and the difficulty of securing reliable marks on a single short essay preclude the use of a sample of writing as the measure of writing ability. Instead, a complete paper written by a student is printed in the left-hand column of a divided page. Certain portions are underlined and numbered. These portions may or may not contain errors. In the column at the right, several alternative versions of each marked portion are suggested, and students select the one which they consider best. It has been shown repeatedly that this form of writing test can attain as high a correlation with marks on essays written on the same day as the marks on any two essays ever attain with one another. At present this test has sixty items and a time limit of forty-five minutes.

Finally, there is the well-known Psychological Examination of the

American Council on Education, which yields scores on both linguistic and quantitative aptitude and has a time limit of one hour.

When this battery of entrance tests was developed, it yielded a multiple correlation of .72 with average marks in the College. Separately, the reading-comprehension test yielded a correlation of about .65; the writing-skills test, about .45; and the Psychological Examination, about .55. Since that time, the College has adopted a program of placement tests which advances able students at once into the more difficult courses and requires the less able to take the easier preliminary courses and even remedial treatment. Naturally, under these conditions, all correlations with college marks have declined, and the present correlations no longer represent the true predictive power of the tests. The tests, however, are probably still the best available measures of aptitude for college work.

Nothing like their accuracy of prediction was ever attained by the old method of counting units of "credit." Without exercising any surveillance over the programs of its contributing schools, the College has been able to select and maintain a student body as well qualified in scholarship as any in the United States. At the same time it has freed the secondary schools to do the job which they know best how to do.

It is pleasing to a University of Chicago man to think that possibly Robert Maynard Hutchins is a reincarnation of Charles Eliot with his soul turned inside out. Eliot founded the elective system in the American college; Hutchins abolished it. Eliot helped to establish the system of uniform college-entrance requirements; Hutchins had a great deal to do with ending it. Each saw what was necessary in his time and went ahead and did it.

DEMOCRACY IN ACTION

DONALD H. YOTT

Pompton Lakes High School, Pompton Lakes, New Jersey



CAMPAIGNING AND ELECTION

THE change of the town offices is a program sponsored by the classes in problems of American democracy at Pompton Lakes High School. The purpose of this program is to give to the students, in a realistic and practical manner, an idea of political and civic responsibilities.

The program begins to operate three weeks before the date set by the local town council. The students organize themselves into political parties. Campaign methods are taught in class and are carried over into actual campaigning by the students. The campaigning usually revolves around posters, speeches, and personal contacts. Posters "plugging" individuals for certain offices decorate the halls of the school. The public-address system of the school is placed at the convenience of the parties.

The students meet at night, weeks in advance, and plan their campaign carefully. Long hours and hard work culminate in an assembly program on election day.

On the day of the election, both parties prepare a program which is comparable to the national convention of our political parties. Each

party is introduced to the student body. The candidates make speeches, emphasizing their competency for the positions they seek. The party platforms, which concern the general wishes and desires of the student body, are presented.

After the assembly program has been held, the entire student body, faculty, and administration, vote. The gymnasium is set up as a polling station, as in regular life. Portable booths are borrowed from the town; students form the election board; and there are party watchers from each party. By the end of the day the election is over, and the votes are counted. The results are then broadcast to the entire school.

There were two political parties in this year's change of town offices, the Independent Party and the Forty-Niners. In keeping with the theme of the yearbook, the Forty-Niners felt that they symbolized a progressive spirit and that they would be successful.

A copy of the ballot with the names of individuals and the offices which they sought is shown here. The two party platforms are also shown.

ELECTION BALLOT FOR CHANGE OF TOWN

OFFICERS DAY

FEBRUARY 11, 1949

Directions for Voters: Place a check mark in the box before the name of the candidate of your choice. You may split your ticket.

VOTE FOR 14 OF THE FOLLOWING

INDEPENDENT

- Mayor*
- ☐ Leo Cusick
Borough Clerk
- ☐ Chuck Hunziker
Borough Nurse
- ☐ Pat Teeling
Chief of Police
- ☐ Russ Proffitt
Dean of Girls
- ☐ Eleanor Potash
Dean of Boys
- ☐ Jim McCarren
Principal
- ☐ Wayne Stansill
Mrs. Bezold
- ☐ Grace Tholin
Miss Newbury
- ☐ Eleanor Springwaldt
Miss St. Ledger
- ☐ Lois Christman
Fire Chief
- ☐ Pete Daly
Borough Attorney
- ☐ Gordon Cramer
Borough Engineer
- ☐ Tom Evans
District Clerk
- ☐ Anford Nelson

FORTY-NINERS

- Mayor*
- ☐ Tom Marone
Borough Clerk
- ☐ Albert Barr
Borough Nurse
- ☐ Dorothy Cort
Chief of Police
- ☐ Don Robinson
Dean of Girls
- ☐ Marie Casella
Dean of Boys
- ☐ Fred Aug
Principal
- ☐ Twine Campbell
Mrs. Bezold
- ☐ Joan Quackenbush
Miss Newbury
- ☐ Barbara Backman
Miss St. Ledger
- ☐ Ardith Kuehm
Fire Chief
- ☐ Eugene Ottens
Borough Attorney
- ☐ Charles Hess
Borough Engineer
- ☐ Gordon Gilmore
District Clerk
- ☐ Keith Paulsion

VOTE FOR 6 OF THE FOLLOWING

INDEPENDENT

- Councilmen*
- ☐ Emilie Grootendorst
- ☐ Bob De Bow
- ☐ Dennise Harrington
- ☐ Jerry Frech
- ☐ Barbara Bush
- ☐ Pat Starr

FORTY-NINERS

- Councilmen*
- ☐ Bob Gordon
- ☐ Bill Ebert
- ☐ Lester Robinson
- ☐ Louise Grieves
- ☐ Clara Hausaman
- ☐ Beth Hosley

VOTE FOR 9 OF THE FOLLOWING

Board of Education

- ☐ Herb Schaefer
- ☐ Betty Riegottie
- ☐ George Florance
- ☐ Bud Dooley
- ☐ Mary Smyth
- ☐ Mary Ann Chapman
- ☐ Bob Dykstra
- ☐ Jim Hughes
- ☐ Ed Longee

Board of Education

- ☐ Albert Thoma
- ☐ Frank Mendez
- ☐ Jack Duffy
- ☐ Carl Hoffman
- ☐ Lillian Aug
- ☐ Peggy Bogie
- ☐ Joyce Whritnour
- ☐ Nancy Dickhagen
- ☐ Evan Maletsky

PARTY PLATFORMS

INDEPENDENT

1. Wire screens around basketball courts
2. Deodorizer in girls', boys', and teachers' rooms
3. Loud speakers in the locker-rooms
4. Advancement Day, 1949-50, one day
5. Portable ceiling for the gym
6. Trophy for noontime basketball
7. Student council office
8. Fountain in the gym
9. More leg room on the Wayne busses
10. Backstop for softball
11. Soundproof the gym
12. Cheerleaders' uniforms
13. Extra credit as stated on report cards
14. Specified test days used
15. Dual-control car
16. Student parking lot
17. Establish a wrestling team
18. Parking meters for the main street
19. New floats and repairs for the parks
20. Parking on one side of street in front of school
21. Construction of exit to municipal parking lot

FORTY-NINERS

1. Soap for girls' room
2. Fence around outdoor basketball court
3. Bleachers for the field
4. New scoreboard for the field
5. New scoreboard for the gym
6. Glass backboards in the gym
7. Fieldhouse at Hershfield Park
8. Girls' basketball league
9. Baseball on Saturdays
10. Letters for the Jay-Vee's
11. Portable bleachers for the gym
12. Costume room
13. Soundproof the gym
14. Cinder track
15. Trophy case
16. Paint tower

TRAINING AND DUTIES
OF OFFICEHOLDERS

The students who are elected meet and are given instructions for their respective jobs. The town council is broken down into its departments. Each council member is put in charge

of one department and is made responsible for all suggestions and problems of his department. The town council holds a preliminary meeting with the borough clerk, who instructs them regarding the procedures used in the council meetings. The Junior

Town Council is then taken to lunch by the Senior Council.

In the afternoon the Junior Town Council convenes to conduct a council meeting. Members of the classes in problems of American democracy are brought to the Municipal Building to observe the meeting.

In the evening, the Senior and Junior Town Councils meet together. The Senior Council conducts its business along with that of the Junior Council. Each Junior Council member sits with the respective Senior Council member who is in charge of the district to which the junior member has been assigned. Through these procedures, our young people become acquainted with the duties and responsibilities of their civic leaders.

The junior members of the Board of Education draw up a program presenting some of our problems. They then hold a joint meeting with the Senior Board of Education, at which, as in the Town Council, the junior members are responsible for a given department and work in close co-ordination with the senior members.

Students who have been elected fire chief and police chief and borough nurse report to the persons holding these actual positions and assume their duties for the day. The student fire chief actually has conducted a rehearsal for the community volunteer firemen. His duties keep him from 8.00 A.M. to 10.30 P.M. During this

time, he is in complete charge, with supervision of the local fire department. The student police chief visits the scene of accidents, supervises the department, regulates traffic, etc. The borough nurse goes over local health reports, makes recommendations, and gives patients minor first-aid treatment.

STUDENT ACTIVITIES IN THE SCHOOL

During the day of the change of the town offices, students always take over the school. They teach the classes; they become the principal, school clerk, school nurse, registrar, deans, coaches, etc. They carry on the duties of the administration, even to the extent of conducting fire drills. The student deans hold conferences with students, mete out detention, and discipline the wayward students of the day. These activities are carried out in all seriousness on the part of the students who are acting as teachers.

Through these experiences, the students gain a valuable insight into the mechanics of school organization and functions; they become better acquainted with the problems with which the faculty has to cope. They understand more thoroughly the teacher's position regarding discipline and rules and regulations and regarding the complexity of instructing the student body in the various subject fields.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON GUIDANCE

PERCIVAL W. HUTSON

University of Pittsburgh



EDUCATIONAL and psychological literature of the last half of 1948 and the first half of 1949 shows a wide range of interest in all aspects of the guidance function. If any field has been especially emphasized, it is that of juvenile delinquency, concerning which an unusual number of books has been written.

DISTRIBUTION¹

483. CONANT, J. B.; RULON, P. J.; and THORNDIKE, E. L. "Selection and Guidance in the Secondary School—A Symposium," *Harvard Educational Review*, XVIII (Spring, 1948), 61-75.
Presents three papers read at ceremonies in honor of the three hundredth anniversary of the founding of the Roxbury Latin School.
484. DRESDEN, KATHARINE W. "Vocational Choices of Secondary Pupils," *Occupations*, XXVII (November, 1948), 104-6.
With "evidence" that is "subjective, individual, and non-statistical" the author supports the thesis that the real vocational choices of pupils are more nearly in harmony with their abilities than the choices which they typically give in response to a questionnaire or the direct interview.
485. *Factors Affecting the Admission of High School Seniors to College*. A report by Elmo Roper for the Committee on a Study of Discriminations in College Admissions. Washington: American Council on Education, 1949. Pp. lx+312 (lithoprinted).
Through the use of an interview technique with fifteen thousand high-school Seniors, the factors affecting admission to college were shown in their relative strength. In particular, the factor of religious affiliation was illuminated. A condensation of this report has been published by the American Council on Education under the title, *On Getting into College*.
486. FORRESTER, GERTRUDE. *Occupational Pamphlets: An Annotated Bibliography*. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1948. Pp. 352.
An enlarged revision of an earlier work useful to counselors, pupils, and librarians.
487. FORRESTER, GERTRUDE. "How To Run a 'College Day,'" *Occupations*, XXVII (March, 1949), 373-80.
Practical experience is cited, and specific steps are enumerated.
488. GREENLEAF, WALTER J. *Government Monographs on Occupations*. Office of Education, Misc. No. 3296, July, 1948. Washington: Federal Security Agency, 1948. Pp. 8.
Presents a list of 285 publications.
489. HARDEE, MELVENE DRAHEIM, and POLLOCK, DOROTHY M. "A Process of Investigation for Occupational Interests," *Junior College Journal*, XIX (December, 1948), 177-84.
Occupational counseling at the junior-

¹ See also Item 462 (Roebler) in the list of selected references appearing in the May-June, 1949, number of the *School Review*.

college level is precisely described and helpfully illustrated.

490. HINES, WILLIAM E. "A Vocational Guidance Score Card for High Schools," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXIV (February, 1949), 114-19.

Presents a comprehensive score card validated by juries of professional workers.

491. KENYON, LAWRENCE B. "A Course in Occupations," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXII (November, 1948), 131-38.

Presents a striking example of creative practice carried on in the high school at Davenport, Iowa.

492. LAWSHE, CHARLES H., JR. *Principles of Personnel Testing*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1948. Pp. xii+228.

Presents a well-rounded discussion. Much emphasis is placed on testing for special aptitudes and for specific occupations.

493. LONGSTAFF, HOWARD P. "Fakability of the Strong Interest Blank and the Kuder Preference Record," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXXII (August, 1948), 360-69.

A scientific study showing that "both tests are decidedly fakable."

494. McELHENY, W. T. "A Study of Two Techniques of Measuring 'Mechanical Comprehension,'" *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XXXII (December, 1948), 611-17.

Presents a scientific study comparing the Bennett Test of Mechanical Comprehension with the Purdue Mechanical Assembly Test.

495. *Occupational Outlook Handbook: Employment Information on Major Occupations for Use in Guidance*. Bulletin No. 940, Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor, Prepared in Co-operation with the Veterans Administration. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1949. Pp. xii+454.

Presents authentic information concerning 288 occupations in the professional, clerical, trade, agricultural, and industrial fields. The emphasis is on trends and the outlook for the future, but much information is given concerning nature of the work, how to enter it, earnings and working conditions, and where to go for additional information. Graphs are used extensively to show changes and trends in employment in the various occupations. Pictures of many workers and attractive printing contribute to the readability of this handbook. The work is co-ordinated with the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*.

496. ROBERTS, ANDREW D. "The Planned Vocational Guidance Interview," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXIV (February, 1949), 120-23.

Describes a five-step procedure.

497. SUPER, DONALD E. *Appraising Vocational Fitness by Means of Psychological Tests*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1949. Pp. xxi+728.

This book represents a careful sifting of the extensive literature on psychological tests, with a view to helping counselors to interpret the scores made by their counselees. Chapters on methods of test construction, on suggestions for the use of test results in counseling, and on illustrative cases contribute to making this work a valuable aid to counselors and to counselors in training.

498. THORNDIKE, ROBERT L. *Personnel Selection: Test and Measurement Techniques*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1949. Pp. viii+358.

While related primarily to industry and to military organization, the descriptions of techniques in job analysis, in test construction and validation, and in test administration have many lessons for school counselors.

ADJUSTMENT²

499. ELLINGSTON, JOHN R. *Protecting Our Children from Criminal Careers*. New

² See also Item 195 (Davis) in the list of selected references appearing in the April, 1949, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1948. Pp. x+374.

Sets forth the principles and practices of treating juvenile delinquency which modern mental hygiene dictates. Presents extended descriptions of the constructive work of rehabilitation carried on by the California Youth Authority, an agency which co-ordinates treatment facilities.

500. GOLDBERG, HARRIET L. *Child Offenders: A Study in Diagnosis and Treatment*. New York: Grune & Stratton, 1948. Pp. xiv+216.

Following an introductory chapter entitled "Children in Court," five chapters describe the major types of problem children, the chief method of presentation being largely case descriptions. The concluding chapter, "A Challenge to Community Organization," is a forceful statement of the need for practical recognition of the many-sided social problems presented by child offenders.

501. HAVIGHURST, ROBERT J., and TABA, HILDA. *Adolescent Character and Personality*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1949. Pp. x+316.

Reports an investigation of sixteen-year-old youths in a small city typical of the Middle West, illuminating the various factors which form character and personality. The main personality types are delineated. The methods of making the study are described at length.

502. JOHNSON, ELIZABETH S., and LEGG, CAROLINE E. "Why Young People Leave School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXII (November, 1948), 14-24.

Presents a report from the Louisville, Kentucky, survey made by the United States Department of Labor, showing in interesting detail the varied forces which operate to cause young people to leave school. "... dissatisfaction with school, as the occasion for leaving, loomed considerably larger than economic reasons."

503. *Juvenile Delinquency*. Edited by THORSTEN SELLIN. The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social

Science, Vol. 261. Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science, 1949. Pp. viii+234.

Seventeen authorities combine to present this social problem, dealing with it from the standpoint of environment, court philosophy and action, and institutional treatment.

504. LIPKIN, STANLEY. "The Client Evaluates Nondirective Psychotherapy," *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, XII (May-June, 1948), 137-46.

Presents a study showing close correspondence between clients' understanding of the process and the descriptions given by those who have written about it.

505. NEUMEYER, MARTIN H. *Juvenile Delinquency in Modern Society*. New York: D. Van Nostrand Co., Inc., 1949. Pp. x+336.

Presents a comprehensive treatise from the sociologist's point of view.

506. RAIMY, VICTOR C. "Self Reference in Counseling Interviews," *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, XII (May-June, 1948), 153-63.

Reports a scientific study of changes in the self-concept occurring through nondirective counseling.

507. RASKIN, NATHANIEL J. "The Development of Nondirective Therapy," *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, XII (March-April, 1948), 92-110.

A useful presentation of historical backgrounds of nondirective counseling.

508. ROGERS, CARL R. "Divergent Trends in Methods of Improving Adjustment," *Harvard Educational Review*, XVIII (Fall, 1948), 209-19.

Develops the issue of directive versus nondirective counseling.

509. SYMONDS, PERCIVAL M. "Validation of a Personality Survey of a Junior High School," *School Review*, LVI (October, 1948), 459-67.

Case descriptions of individual pupils in a junior high school are presented to show

that a technique used for a general personality survey of a school is valid in its revelation of problem pupils.

510. SYMONDS, PERCIVAL M. "Education and Psychotherapy," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XL (January, 1949), 1-32.

Presents an analysis of the similarities and the differences between the teacher and the psychotherapist as to functions and techniques.

511. "Symposium: Critical Evaluation of Nondirective Counseling and Psychotherapy," *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, IV (July, 1948), 225-63.

Presents a group of seven papers devoted to discussion of various aspects of nondirective counseling.

512. TAPPAN, PAUL W. *Juvenile Delinquency*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1949. Pp. x+614.

Sets forth a sociologist's rounded presentation of the nature, extent, causation, and treatment of juvenile delinquency.

513. WATSON, ROBERT I. *Readings in the Clinical Method in Psychology*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1949. Pp. x+740.

Articles from psychological journals have been selected and organized to throw light on the problems, objectives, and methods of clinical psychology. Many of the writings constitute helpful reading for school counselors.

514. WATT, GEORGE D. "An Evaluation of Non-directive Counseling in the Treatment of Delinquents," *Journal of Educational Research*, XLII (January, 1949), 343-52.

Presents a scientific study showing considerable effectiveness of nondirective counseling in reaching desired objectives with institutionalized delinquents.

DISTRIBUTION AND ADJUSTMENT¹

515. ANDERSON, ROSE G. "Preferred Ages for Vocational Counseling," *Occupa-*

tions, XXVII (November, 1948), 77-81.

Adults in an industrial plant who were given the benefit of comprehensive vocational counseling were asked at what age they thought counseling should be provided. "The results confirm the experience of consultants that problems of vocational indecision and readjustment occur at all age, ability, and educational levels."

516. ARNOLD, DWIGHT L. "Time Spent by Counselors and Deans on Various Activities," *Occupations*, XXVII (March, 1949), 391-93.

Reports an investigation made in Ohio showing that much time is spent on attendance, tardiness, discipline, and school failure, while the time available for counseling on vocational, educational, and personal problems is grossly inadequate.

517. BENZ, STANLEY C. *An Investigation of the Attributes and Techniques of High-School Counselors*. Studies in Higher Education LXIV. Further Studies in Attitudes, Series XII. Lafayette, Indiana: Division of Educational Reference, Purdue University, 1948. Pp. 44.

By the use of tests and inventories submitted to a jury of ten experts and to high-school pupils, descriptions of the prime elements of good counseling and of the characteristics of a good counselor were obtained.

518. BROUWER, PAUL J. *Student Personnel Services in General Education*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1949. Pp. xx+318.

Presents a treatment of personnel services primarily at the junior-college level, the program of counseling being but one important phase.

519. CENTERS, RICHARD. "Motivational Aspects of Occupational Stratification," *Journal of Social Psychology*, XXVIII (November, 1948), 187-218.

¹ See also Item 419 (Wood and Haefner) in the list of selected references appearing in the May-June, 1949, number of the *School Review*.

By interview technique the varied innovations of representatives of the several occupational strata were ascertained.

520. CHRISTENSEN, THOMAS E. "Responsibilities of the High-School Principal in the Guidance Program," *School Review*, LVII (March, 1949), 149-54.

Points to the critical role of the principal in determining the effectiveness of the guidance program. Classifies his responsibilities under eight headings and discusses each.

521. FEDDER, RUTH. *Guiding Homeroom and Club Activities*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1949. Pp. xx+468.

Following a presentation of the leader's role in group work, the guidance of homeroom and club activities is developed mainly by detailed type studies of such organizations.

522. FLETCHER, FRANK M., JR. "Occupations in Counseling," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XXVIII (April 13 and May 11, 1949), 93-100, 127-37.

Gives concise descriptions of five occupations in the field of counseling outside of educational institutions and of eight such occupations in educational institutions.

523. FROELICH, CLIFFORD P. *Evaluating Guidance Procedures: A Review of the Literature*. Office of Education, Misc. No. 3310, January, 1949. Washington: Federal Security Agency, 1949. Pp. 26.

Classifies and describes the various methods of evaluating guidance. Bibliography of 177 items.

524. GREENLEAF, WALTER J. *Occupational Books, 1947-48*. Office of Education, Misc. No. 3286, 1948. Washington: Federal Security Agency, 1948. Pp. 4.

A list of books and pamphlets of interest to guidance workers published in 1947 and 1948.

525. *Guidance Handbook for Elementary Schools*. Prepared by Division of Research and Guidance, with the Assistance of Division of Elementary Education, Division of Trade and Industrial

Education of the Office of Los Angeles County Superintendent of Schools. Los Angeles: California Test Bureau, 1948. Pp. xiv+158.

Presents a well-rounded treatment of guidance, broadly defined, in the modern elementary school. Affords much valuable information and practical advice.

526. HOPPOCK, ROBERT; ROBINSON, H. ALAN; and ZLATCHIN, PHILIP J. "Job Satisfaction Researches of 1946-1947," *Occupations*, XXVII (December, 1948), 167-75.

Sixth in a series of biennial reviews of researches in job satisfaction, this article reports contributions in techniques as well as in findings. Lists a bibliography of forty-nine items.

527. JOHNSON, ELIZABETH S. "Employment Problems of Out-of-School Youth," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXII (October, 1948), 45-51.

Presents an intensive study of out-of-school youth in Louisville, Kentucky, made by the United States Department of Labor.

528. JOHNSON, ROY IVAN. "A Philosophy of Education for Counselors," *Junior College Journal*, XIX (March, 1949), 384-89.

A well-matured point of view effectively expressed.

529. LABARRE, CORINNE. *Graduate Training for Educational Personnel Work*. American Council on Education Studies, Series VI, Student Personnel Work, No. 11. Washington: American Council on Education, 1948. Pp. vi+54.

Reports a "survey of the training facilities now available" for preparing personnel workers at all educational levels. In addition to a summary, an appendix describes the individual programs of a large number of graduate schools.

530. LEWERENZ, ALFRED S. "Proposed Organization of Guidance in Los Angeles," *California Journal of Secondary*

Education, XXIV (February, 1949), 108-13.

Offers an interesting classification of guidance services.

531. MATHEWSON, ROBERT H. *Guidance Policy and Practice*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1949. Pp. xiv+294.

A book which emphasizes the theory of guidance in relation to society, to education, and to psychological and philosophical concepts.

532. MYERS, GEORGE E. "Follow-up: The Stepchild of the Guidance Family," *Occupations*, XXVII (November, 1948), 100-103.

Points to the values and importance of follow-up service and advocates the creation of a new unit in the school system as the best means of providing such service.

533. NORTON, STANLEY K. "Student Problems Met by the Teacher," *School Review*, LVI (September, 1948), 404-9.

A classification of the problems of high-school pupils as met by 235 teachers.

534. "Report of the Self-Study Survey of Guidance Practices in North Central Association High Schools for the School Year 1947-48," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXIII (January, 1949), 276-303.

Presents data from 2,177 schools partitioned by size and by state. The statistics are illuminated by many quotations from the comments of the principals who responded to the inquiry.

535. ROGERS, CARL R. "The Attitude and Orientation of the Counselor in Client-centered Therapy," *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, XIII (April, 1949), 82-94.

Presents a discussion of the counselor's role.

536. ROTHNEY, JOHN W. M., and ROENS, BERT A. *Counseling the Individual Student*. New York: William Sloane Associates, Inc., 1949. Pp. viii+364.

A work which focuses on techniques for study of the individual. Extensive presentation of case histories are offered as exercises for the training of counselors.

537. SHANK, DONALD J. *The Teacher as Counselor*. American Council on Education Studies, Series VI, Student Personnel Work, No. 10. Washington: American Council on Education, 1948. Pp. vi+48.

Presents a treatment of the counseling activities of college teachers.

538. STONE, C. HAROLD. "Are Vocational Orientation Courses Worth Their Salt?" *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, VIII (Summer, 1948), 161-81.

Presents evaluation of the vocational orientation courses in the General College, University of Minnesota.

539. STRANG, RUTH. *Counseling Technics in College and Secondary School*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1949 (revised and enlarged edition). Pp. xiv+302.

Each of the following techniques is expounded in a separate chapter: observation, rating scales, the autobiography and similar forms of self-expression, the interview, projective techniques, cumulative personnel records, the case study, and therapeutic methods. The literature of scientific investigations has been carefully sifted for the illumination of each technique, and extended bibliographies are given.

540. "Student Personnel Conference," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XXVIII (February 16, 1949), 29-56.

Reports several addresses given at Ohio State University, relating to guidance primarily at the college level.

541. *The Third Mental Measurements Yearbook*. Edited by OSCAR KRISEN BUROS. New Brunswick, New Jersey: Rutgers University Press, 1949. Pp. xiv+1048.

Presents a comprehensive review of measurements literature from 1940 to 1947, inclusive, taken up in two sections, "Tests and Reviews" and "Books and Reviews."

The candid reviews of all types of educational and psychological tests constitute a valuable aid to the counselor in selecting tests and interpreting results from them.

542. THOMAS, W. CRAIG. "Guidance Duties of a Teacher," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXIV (April, 1949), 237-42.

Presents an excellent statement by a teacher, making clear the opportunities of classroom contacts and experiences.

543. WEY, HERBERT. "An Experiment in Group Guidance," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXII (May, 1948), 124-29.

While not a controlled experiment, this report of experience suggests that group guidance was greatly improved in effectiveness by pupil participation in the planning of the programs.

544. WILLIAMSON, E. G. (editor). *Trends in Student Personnel Work*. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1949. Pp. x+418.

A publication of the papers read by leaders in personnel work at the college level on the occasion of "a conference sponsored by the University of Minnesota to celebrate a quarter-century of student personnel work and to honor Professor Donald G. Paterson."

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

I. JAMES QUILLEN and LAVONE A. HANNA, *Education for Social Competence: Curriculum and Instruction in Secondary-School Social Studies*. A Report of the Stanford Social Studies Investigation. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1948. Pp. viii + 572. \$3.00.

JAMES HEMMING, *The Teaching of Social Studies in Secondary Schools*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1949. Pp. xx + 176. \$1.60.

The process of translating the pioneering theories of "frontier thinkers" into educational practices and their subsequent integration into the daily procedures of ordinary public-school systems are a normal, if often arduous, cycle in the history of education. Of the two works reviewed, the one by James Hemming belongs to the earlier stage, in which an educational reformer individually attempts to awaken his fellow-teachers in Britain to new opportunities. The work by Quillen and Hanna is somewhat more advanced, reporting on the work of the large-scale Stanford Social Studies Investigation and synthesizing progressive practices in contemporary social education in the United States.

Education for Social Competence by Quillen and Hanna is concerned with:

The development of social education in the United States, [with] some of the major characteristics of American culture which affect it, and [with] the nature of American democratic values. . . . The remaining chapters of the book . . . discuss individual growth and development, the nature of individual needs, the characteristics of behavior which form the objectives for social-studies instruction, the program of studies, ma-

terials of instruction, techniques of teaching and learning, procedures for evaluation, and the professional development of the social-studies teacher [p. 23].

The work is exceptionally well documented, with the footnotes conveniently grouped after the last chapter, followed by an excellent set of references arranged by chapters. The three appendixes are devoted to samples of (1) a resource unit, (2) a teaching unit, and (3) report cards. The organization is admirable and the style adequate. Index, typography, and binding are good.

Some of the findings of the investigation will be of general interest. The objectives of social education are classified under the three headings of understandings, values, and skills and are then stated in behavioral terms. The best means of achieving adequate scope in the curriculum was found to be through the use of "areas of human relationship," "social processes," or "social functions" (p. 80). Units were classified as "chronological," "topical," and "problem-solving"; after a careful study the authors (chapter vi) concluded that each type had its proper use but that a larger place than it usually has should be given to the problems approach. Some of the most interesting and useful illustrative material in the book was the work of teachers in the co-operating schools.

Social-studies teachers and administrators will find the following parts also especially helpful: (1) the discussion of the techniques of pre-planning; (2) ways of making and using resource units; (3) the selection and use of the several kinds of study materials (chapters ix-xii); (4) the superb critical

appraisal of the prewar "propaganda-analysis" movement; and (5) the exposition of the principles governing the proper use of persuasion materials (chapter xii).

Then, also, the "debunkers" are "debunked." Quillen and Hanna point out that, just because a generalization "glitters," it is not necessarily untrue or dishonest. It may, in fact, express some of our noblest aspirations (as in the Declaration of Independence).

Despite a rather narrow definition of evaluation, Quillen and Hanna give us three good chapters on the subject. A good deal of attention is also given to the development of the ability in students to think critically, but surprisingly little is said of the possibilities of elementary applications of historical method to past and contemporary primary sources.

Hemming sees the task of the social studies thus:

On the one hand is the child; on the other his world. Our purpose is to introduce the one to the other and make them friends, so that the child feels that he is really welcome, at home, and has a participant role in the life of the world [p. 48].

Other persons might argue that the home still has the basic responsibility for getting this process started and going right.

Hemming's work would have been clearer if he had distinguished, as Quillen and Hanna do, between "social studies" and "social education." Hemming also commends the problems approach highly and makes some excellent suggestions for units designed to stimulate critical thinking—units with titles such as: "Are you superstitious?" "Can they fool you?" "Are you prejudiced?" "Spotting the flaw," "What's the news worth?" He also quotes Dr. W. Temple who pointed out that "it is only necessary to give to young people the French and British [English?] accounts of the battle of Agincourt to rid them for life of an uncritical faith in the printed word."

Hemming has a comprehensive list of relationships which "the modern child needs to study and comprehend" (pp. 50-55)—a list which American teachers might use as a

check against their school curriculums in science and the social studies. A summary of "musts" for "last-year" students is equally suggestive. Sir Cyril Burt wrote a stimulating foreword to the volume.

Most American educators should read *Education for Social Competence*, for effective social education is the concern of others besides the teachers of the social studies though it is most pressingly theirs. No other work has appeared in the United States, within the past decade at least, which explains and illustrates so well what progressive American teachers are doing in the field of social education on the high-school level. Those educators who wish to learn what some of our British colleagues are thinking and doing in the same area, and who like to read pedagogical works not too heavily loaded with "pedagogy," will find Hemming's book instructive and charming.

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Film and Education. A Symposium on the Role of Film in Education. Edited by Godfrey M. Elliott. New York: Philosophical Library, 1948. Pp. xii+598. \$7.50.

A relatively large number of books on mass communications have appeared since the war. Authors writing about the motion picture have been especially prolific. Recently, thirty-seven of these writers combined their efforts in a voluminous "comprehensive survey of the present and potential uses of the 16-mm. educational motion picture in our modern society" (p. ix).

Although *Film and Education* gives major emphasis to applications of the motion picture, two of the five sections of the volume deal with the nature of the educational film and administrative considerations, respectively. Somewhat more than half the book, however, is devoted to the utilization of mo-

tion pictures in the common school and in non-school and higher educational situations. The status of educational films abroad is also briefly surveyed.

The first section of the book deals with the nature of the educational film. A brief history of the motion picture is followed by an attempt to classify all films into twelve mutually exclusive categories. It would be interesting to determine the extent to which several judges would agree on the classification of specific films under these categories.

An elementary discourse on several visual factors, such as attention, orientation, relaxation, and participation, is contained in a chapter on the psychology of vision. More specific applications to film production and viewing, as well as more adequate footnotes, would have improved this part of the book, but these lacks do not detract seriously from its general interest.

Perhaps the weakest chapter in *Film and Education* is that dealing with research. After describing as basic to educational psychology the work of Galton, Lashley, Pavlov, Cattell, Kohler, and others, the author modestly includes his own study among those likewise basic to the field of educational motion pictures. Yet the much more significant studies by the American Council on Education, by Fowlkes and Wittich, by Charters' Payne Fund group, and half a dozen other individuals and groups are omitted from this "basic list."

More important weaknesses of the chapter on research, however, are ambiguous and inaccurate statements, poor organization, and inappropriate space allotments. For example, regarding the American Council studies, Long writes: "A film catalogue was compiled. Later it was decided that the films should be evaluated" (p. 65). Actually the films that were ultimately included in the "catalogue" were selected on the basis of evaluative judgments previously gathered on a much larger group of films than was finally catalogued. Furthermore, Long devotes a full page to his own study of color, but the only mention of his findings is found five

pages farther on, in the last two sentences of a long paragraph. Finally, the monumental Payne Fund Studies are given less than half as much the space as Sumstine's small and loosely controlled experiment.

An interesting conglomeration of valuable insights, sound observations, useless platitudes, and generally accepted, though unverified, statements is provided in the section dealing with classroom applications of films. Wittich forcefully presents a rather acceptable technique for the classroom use of educational films, but it is quite clear that he was thinking mainly of teaching deductively with definitely factual films. Appropriate techniques of using attitudinal, appreciational, and discussion films may be quite different from the one he describes.

Keeslar clearly has a wider range of objectives of film teaching in mind in his chapter on science films. It is unfortunate that his keen understanding of science-teaching is not supplemented by a rudimentary knowledge of motion-picture production. Keeslar's naïve complaint about the narrator's excessive wordiness in sound films is much like scolding a newsboy for the editorial policy of a newspaper.

In addition to occasional excellent and thought-inspiring statements, the best part of the section on classroom applications of films is the rather generous use of references to the specific contributions of certain good films in the various subject-matter areas. The chapters on safety education, guidance, and physical education are especially helpful.

Film applications to adult and religious education and to industrial, sales, and medical training are treated in separate chapters. Theatrical films and motion pictures in libraries, the government, and the armed services are also described in the section entitled "Educational Film outside the Classroom."

Haas on sales-personnel training and Hackel on medical training provide the only material on motion-picture production techniques in *Film and Education*. The former

treats production from the standpoint of the film sponsor, and the latter from the producer's viewpoint. Both clearly imply the relation between problems of utilization and production.

In a chapter on films for religious education Hockman has condensed, clarified, and elaborated much from his book on the same subject. The original work was already meritorious, and this "distillation" is, perhaps, even better. Few educators have so clearly stated the case for motion pictures as basic, not supplementary, materials as he has on pages 351-52.

Research has not been ignored by the writers on non-classroom applications of films. Albright refers to extremely valuable research on the relationship between theatrical motion pictures and the distribution of books and records. Haas provides some rather spectacular figures on the influence of films on learning. Neither author, however, designates the sources of his data.

Chapters on films in Great Britain and in Canada provide interesting check points by which to appraise our own progress in utilizing the film medium in this country. Of very doubtful value, however, is the attempt to survey in a single chapter the use of films in all the rest of the world. Besides the obvious danger of conveying the wrong impression by enforced brevity and consequent overgeneralization, there is the real possibility of offending our friends overseas. This reviewer has already received firsthand information of resentment on these scores on the part of audio-visual leaders in two foreign countries.

Though it may seem incongruous to include a section on administration in a book on film applications, it is fortunate that such a section does appear. The entire administrative hierarchy from the national level to that of the school co-ordinator is treated in eight chapters. Implementing the use of films is the central theme in nearly every case. In especially helpful chapters, Lemler reports an extensive survey of present college film library practice, and Robinson describes with great reasonableness and insight the work of the

audio-visual co-ordinator in a public school.

If all of *Film and Education* were as good as the best in it, it would indeed be a paragon among books. It is unfortunate, therefore, that the reader must search through too much chaff to find the not inconsiderable number of grains of wheat. The Index, which consists almost solely of proper names, film titles, and chapter headings, gives little assistance. The format is not outstanding, and the frequency of typographical errors (there are at least five in one sixty-page span) seems inordinately high.

The good in *Film and Education* deserves to be read and will prove rewarding to the diligent reader. Unfortunately, this book cannot be recommended without reservations as to its accuracy, completeness, and organization.

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ARTHUR B. MAYS, *Principles and Practices of Vocational Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1948. Pp. viii+304. \$3.50.

A recent book by Mays has as its major theses the principles that vocations are basic to all human existence and that in a democracy a wide variety of vocational opportunities should be made available to all. Mays believes that a state-wide program of vocational education, co-ordinated with the public schools, is essential to the realization of this program. In addition, a system of part-time, mail, and supplementary schools is needed to provide for the varied abilities and educational levels of the American people.

The first few chapters of the book deal with the meaning of vocational education, trace its development in the United States, and show its gradual acceptance as a school responsibility. The growth of private and public vocational schools, polytechnic institutes, normal schools, college vocational education (dentistry, law, engineering, library

work, personnel work), vocational courses in high school, commercial schools, and the gradual development of the concept of school responsibility for vocational education are briefly mentioned. Federal aid is credited with firmly establishing homemaking, commercial, agriculture, and industrial education as part of the public-education system.

The relation between cultural and vocational education is clarified. Methodology is given scant treatment. Mays insists that, in realizing vocational efficiency, practice must come before theory—a procedure which calls for reorganization of subject matter and teaching practice. The author believes that reorganization can best be accomplished through the use of the project method in vocational training below the college level and the case method in professional training.

The weakness of the public-school version of business education—its tendency to be neither general education nor vocational education—is carefully pointed out. Practical-arts courses are treated as sound preparation for later vocational education. Part-time trade extension classes and evening classes are rated as the most efficient forms of trade

and industrial education, and full-time trade classes and co-operative programs of training with industry and the public schools are highly praised.

The author states that, at the college level, there is much concern over the curriculum and methods; the relations of general education, technical knowledge, and practical skill; the selection of students; the selection and training of teachers; apprenticeship; and training for research or the different levels of a profession. Unusual problems also face the organizer or administrator of vocational education: the location of training centers, the setting-up of workable co-operative agreements, and the effective co-ordination of local, state, and federal efforts in certain fields of work.

The value of this book lies not in originality of principle but in the author's synthesis of much of the current thinking in vocational education. A careful presentation gives the book real value for use in orienting groups and individuals to the vocational-education field.

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

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ALMY, MILLIE CORINNE. *Children's Experiences Prior to First Grade and Success in Beginning Reading*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 954. New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1949. Pp. viii+124. \$2.35.

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AYER, FRED C. *Practical Child Accounting*. Austin, Texas: Steck Co., 1949. Pp. viii+238. \$4.00.

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BROWNE, MARY K. *Design for Tennis*. New York 13: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1949. Pp. 216. \$3.00.

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- HEMMING, JAMES. *The Teaching of Social Studies in Secondary Schools.* New York: Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., 1949. Pp. xx+176. \$1.60.
- HOLLINGSHEAD, AUGUST B. *Elmtown's Youth: The Impact of Social Classes on Adolescents.* New York 16: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1949. Pp. xii+480. \$5.00.
- KELLY, ELLEN DAVIS. *Teaching Posture and Body Mechanics.* New York 3: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1949. Pp. iv+212. \$3.75.
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- OTTO, HENRY J. *Principles of Elementary Education.* New York 16: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1949. Pp. xvi+430. \$4.00.
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- ADAMS, MILDRED, and WADE, WILLIAM W. *Britain's Road to Recovery*. Headline Series, No. 74. New York 16: Foreign Policy Association, Inc., 1948. Pp. 64. \$0.35.
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